

The History Teacher's Magazine

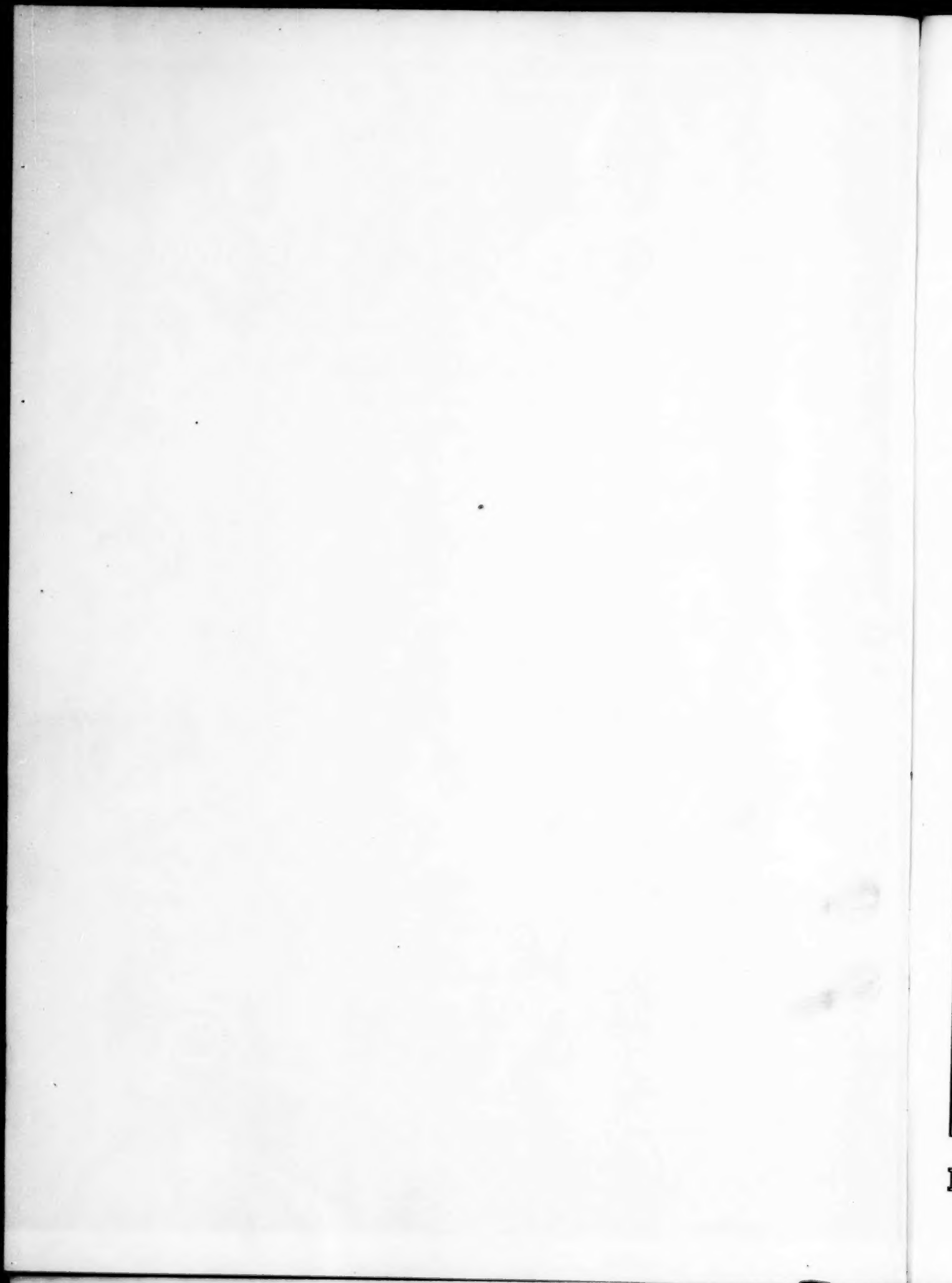
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EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Volume V.
Number 1.

PHILADELPHIA, JANUARY, 1914

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The Press in Its Relation to History

BY WALDO L. COOK, OF THE SPRINGFIELD, MASS., "REPUBLICAN."

So far as I know, there is no business that can use history more easily, or to greater practical advantage, than my own. I was struck by this idea particularly in reading the last annual address of the president of the American Economic Association, Prof. Farnum, of Yale, who discussed "The Economic Utilization of History," meaning, of course, the use of history by the economist. He found that there were certain obstacles in the way, although the economist does succeed in using history to an eminent degree. To the journalist, who is inevitably a superficial, rough and ready workman compared with the social scientist or the economist, the history of past times presents itself as a convenient, accessible storehouse of information which he may perpetually pilfer for the enlightenment of his readers. It is a very practical matter for the journalist to know history. Indeed, he cannot know too much, although it is a melancholy fact that he usually knows too little. If, however, in addition to skill in concealing his ignorance, he knows where to find things, the battle is won, and the editor glories in the popular reputation of knowing everything.

The moment Mr. Roosevelt announced his candidacy, there came requests from "Constant Reader" for light on the third-term tradition, and the history of that so-called "unwritten law" had to be presented, at least with sufficient precision to stand attack in the political melee. Four years ago Mr. Taft, in a Memorial Day address, unluckily raised the forgotten question whether General Grant, in his earlier military career, had been forced to resign from the army because of drunkenness; and immediately that became an issue of momentary public interest.

"Constant Reader," you may be sure, had to be satisfied concerning the facts in the case, and General Grant's life had to be ransacked for the next morning's paper. The liberal government of Great Britain determined to mend or end the House of Lords, and the issue of the Lords' veto upon legislation could not be intelligently considered on this side of the water without giving the reader some historical background in relation to the old conflict between Lords and Commons. When the French Government abolished the concordat with the papacy a few years ago, the origin of the concordat became a necessary part of any intelligent editorial discussion. These are simple illustrations of the utilization of history by editorial writers, but many more illustrations might be presented of its utilization by writers of special articles. Every important anniversary, such as the centennials of epochal events, battles, and births of

great men, affords the press an opportunity to use and at the same time to teach history.

There have been a considerable number of men, at one time or another, engaged in journalism, who have written books of history or biography, and who in some cases have made really notable contributions to historical literature. Lord Morley is, perhaps, the best example among living Englishmen; and, since he so signally honored my business by becoming a contributing editor, Mr. Roosevelt has been probably the best known of the sort in America, at least since the death of John Hay. But, singular as it may seem, according to that excellent little book, entitled "Historical Evidence," by Prof. George, of Oxford University, every real journalist in the world, even the most humble and obscure, does work essentially the same as that of the historian. "The work of the historian," writes the professor, "divides itself into two stages; first, he has to ascertain the facts; secondly, to interpret them." That is precisely the work of the journalist. First, he must ascertain the facts, and then interpret them. It is unnecessary to assure you that it is not easy to do either, and do it well. On the press the work of ascertaining facts is mainly done by reporters, while the work of interpreting them is done by editorial writers; but the two specialties often overlap in practice.

I have already called your attention briefly to how the editorial writer utilizes the history of times gone by, and now I wish to show how he plays exactly the rôle of Prof. George's historian in discussing current events. Let us consider the episode of the deportation of the children during the recent strike in Lawrence. The first thing to be done was to ascertain the facts. There were various versions published, more or less conflicting, and it was a rather difficult subject to discuss with fairness to all sides. So far as I can see, the method used by careful and conscientious men must have been identical with the method which Prof. George ascribes to his historian. "The first stage," writes Prof. George, "is mainly a matter of evidence; he must scrutinize and compare the available sources of information, and judge from them as to the alleged facts. Some of them he may class as certain—matters so notorious that it is practically impossible that there can be any mistake about them. Others he will accept as in his judgment true, while admitting that another mind may form a different opinion. Others he will class as doubtful, because the authority for them seems to him unsatisfactory in the face of contrary statements or inherent improbability." Having

thus reached conclusions as to the facts, by a comparative study of the sources of information, aided by whatever knowledge he may possess concerning the reporters and the papers that publish their narratives, the editorial writer approaches the second stage, that is, of interpretation. And here, again, what Prof. George writes concerning the historian applies to the editorial writer. For, "the second stage," according to the professor, "requires no longer the judicial faculty only, but insight, even imagination, to suggest the reasons why things happened, the motives that swayed the chief actors in events, the influences that caused this or that drift of opinion or of feeling." In writing those lines on the historian's task in interpretation, Prof. George doubtless had in mind events a century or a thousand years old, but every journalist knows from his own experience that the same judgment, the same insight, the same imagination were highly useful, to anyone possessing those qualities, in interpreting to the public such an episode as the deportation of the children in the Lawrence strike, within twenty-four or forty-eight hours after the happening.

In showing how the editorial writer utilizes what may be called current history for purposes of interpretation, I might demonstrate still further that he uses methods which do not essentially differ from those of the modern historian. Suppose the whole body of Washington correspondents report a new and startling change of foreign policy by the administration. Or let it be a quarrel between two of our foremost public men that suddenly reaches a culmination in an open rupture, and the newspaper correspondents find themselves called upon to write about it at great length and with much detail. The average man reads but one daily paper. The well-trained commentator reads all the more important journals accessible; he considers the character of the paper publishing each account, and, so far as he may, he estimates the personal bias of the correspondent himself, especially the bias due to favors he may have received from one or the other of the principals to the controversy. In dealing with human testimony of this character, three independent considerations, you will say, determine its value:—

1. What were the witness's means of knowing the truth as to the matter in question?
2. What is his capacity for observing fully and accurately, or judging correctly?
3. How far is he to be trusted to tell the truth without bias?

If I can answer those three questions concerning the men who report the facts, I can succeed much better in interpreting the episode itself. But those three questions are taken verbatim from Prof. George's book on "Historical Evidence." They are the criteria, he says, by which the historian may determine the trustworthiness of "the work of men who have set down in writing statements which they desire shall be believed."

Suppose that all the editorial writers in the land and all the journalistic commentators on current

events could be trained for their work somewhat as historians are trained, would we not have a much better press and would not the press perform whatever function it has as an engine of public enlightenment to the greater advantage of the people? It is not my purpose, in calling your attention to the striking similarity, in principle, between the journalist's work and the historian's work, to maintain that the work of the one is equal, or can ever be equal, to the work of the other in those qualities which are indispensable to all history worthy of the name. It is simply my belief that the press may be immensely improved if those connected with it, in whatever capacity, can be educated to appreciate the splendid dignity of its true ideal. For the press *is* history—not in its finished form, but in those primary elements which make possible the history of the schools.

What the press does in making history may interest you. There are two ways in which the press may make history. It may actually influence events themselves, or it may influence the media through which those events can be seen both by contemporaries and by posterity. If it does one thing or the other, it influences the making of history as it will be read in the books. "There is no such thing as historical knowledge in the strictest sense of the word, beyond the very few things of which our own senses have been cognizant"—here again I am quoting from my valued ally, in this discussion, Prof. George. For historical knowledge, he says, "is, strictly speaking, belief based on the testimony of others." It is easy to see, therefore, how the press, as a tremendous engine of publicity, may affect history in the making. Newspapers, as newspapers, have played "speaking parts" in the world's development. The civil war, in its early stages, was certainly affected, from the military point of view, by the *New York Tribune's* cry of "On to Richmond." The Spanish war was hastened, at least, by the exploitation in our press of the starving reconcentrados in Cuba. The Boer war was largely the product of a skilful and rather unscrupulous newspaper campaign against the Transvaal republic. General Sir William Butler, in his memoirs, gives illustration after illustration of how the London press worked up a militant spirit in England through the South African correspondents.

In no less interesting a way the press has made history more indirectly. Generally speaking, the private life of statesmen, particularly those of the first rank, is much purer to-day than it was a century ago or a century and a half ago. Why is this? When the freedom of the press was achieved in England in the eighteenth century, public life was placed under the glare of publicity for the first time. Parliamentary seats were bought and sold on a large scale, and the morals of court and aristocracy were scandalously loose. Now, what Methodism did not do to purify the life of the English nation in that period, a free press did do. Thanks to vituperators like Junius, it became inexpedient, then unfashionable and finally unpardonable, for a prime minister like the duke of Grafton to appear at the opera with a woman of the town.

Even Lord Melbourne could not swear in the presence of the girlish queen, and it followed, as Mr. Gladstone used to say, that the accession of Victoria drove profanity from the British court. And so the rise of a free press has reacted upon the public life of democracies. The preliminary question asked by political managers nowadays is whether the possible candidate carries the faintest aroma of scandal. No party wishes to be burdened with the impossible defense of a scandalous private life. Notwithstanding the exaggeration, abuse and scurrility which have long accompanied criticism of officials and rulers, public life has been largely purged by this process. Popular government has been benefited, and thus the press has made history.

These are cases in which history was made, directly or indirectly, by the existence of a press; but history has also been modified by the absence of an enterprising, vigilant press, even in recent times. For purposes of illustration, consider the fact that the federal constitutional convention of 1787 was permitted to hold all of its sessions in secret and that its debates on the United States constitution were not officially reported, as such debates would be to-day. It is amazing to the modern journalist that so important a gathering apparently had no conception of the importance to future generations of every scrap of correct information concerning its deliberations. The official secretary, who might perhaps be called the official reporter of the proceedings, was thoroughly incompetent and apparently he got his position through political pull. The notes he left were absurdly inadequate and confused. Thanks to Madison's private journal, we have the debates fairly well reported in a much condensed form; but it is not too much to say that the development of American constitutional law has been affected by the lack of full and accurate reports of the great convention's discussions of the various parts of the constitution, which is still the storm center of contending schools of interpretation.

The press, too, may make history in the sense that it directly affects actual events, when it is used for the promotion of causes, good or bad, and also for the furtherance of personal ambitions. A very rich man may have control of many newspapers and magazines; if he uses the publicity they command for him to promote good causes and advance the interests or careers of good men, he helps to bring about events good in themselves; if he does the opposite, he helps to bring about events in themselves bad. For the press is not exclusively used to record events as they happen perchance; it is often used to make things happen in a particular way. To this end, all of its resources are concentrated and its function as historian disappears in a welter of hysterical propaganda and, it may be, of reportorial mendacity.

The effect of modern publicity upon history is worth more study than any serious minded and scholarly investigator has yet given to it. I can only suggest a few aspects of the subject, in this connection, inasmuch as it seems impossible to ignore them. We live in an age of publicity,—even of advertising,

which is the systematic, even frantic seeking of publicity. The possibilities of publicity are stupendous, and it may be that we are only beginning to appreciate their effect on the human mind. It is well known that modern advertising arts have a psychological basis; and so modern publicity may powerfully influence, from a psychological viewpoint, the media through which historical events can be seen and judged by the acutest of historians. In former times, the people saw their great leaders, rulers and warriors as actors were seen on the Georgian and Elizabethan stage—through half and quarter lights, in shadows and twilight zones—because publicity was a very feeble flame. To-day, we see those same characters, contemporaneous with us, as we see modern actors and stage trappings—under the high lights and intense, variegated colors which modern illuminating equipment can produce. Thus, in our time, effects may tend to be over-emphasized rather than under-emphasized; and we must be constantly on guard against those numerous "gluttons of the lime-light," who have learned the art of personal projection under modern conditions of publicity.

Pursuing this thought, there may be quite as much danger of manufacturing legends, through our modern publicity, as there was under the conditions that prevailed before the press was developed. It is certain that publicity fails very often to reveal the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, with the celerity one could hope to see. We have witnessed, for example, within our own lives, the foundation of a new form of religion, known as Christian Science. It has come up in the very eyes of the modern press. Do we really know the essential character of the founder of that religion much better, historically speaking, than we know the essential character of Mahomet? Writing of Mahomet, a recent historical essayist has asked: "Was he sincere enthusiast, or conscious imposter, or a mixture of the two, and whence did he derive the materials for his new creed?" That is the Mahomet problem, and Mahomet died more than 1,000 years ago. But, so far as I can make out, the Mrs. Eddy problem, historically speaking, could be stated in precisely the same words; and Mrs. Eddy died only the other day.

What has publicity done for history, if such are the results? Future historians must certainly be vigilant in studying our time through its press, if they are not to be misled by the excessively high lights in which publicity occasionally places things; but, on the whole, we may be reassured by the thought that publicity must promote historical verity in the end by its power to turn its illuminants back on itself and thus expose its own exaggerations and lies. It takes a thief to catch a thief. It takes publicity to catch publicity.

We come now to consider the press in its relation to the writing of history. Prof. Munsterberg not long ago wrote for one of the magazines a very entertaining article on his melancholy experiences with newspaper reporters. "The case of the reporter," he said as a final word, "has not yet found that attention which it deserves in the fabric of our public life." I

am glad Prof. Munsterberg said that, for it affords one some justification for discussing the reporter's case with special reference to his relation to history. For when finally we come to the ascertainment of current facts in the moving life of the world and the earliest recording of those facts in a literary form, we run straight into the hospitable arms of the reporter. It is not necessary, in this connection, to quarrel with Prof. Munsterberg's statement that "the editorial page has declined in its influence"—although personally I do not believe it. He writes no less than the truth, however, in saying that "the vivid, living report of actual experiences has taken a firm grasp on the popular interest. This focuses the interest of the social student on the reporter who supplies the news. Does the American reporter fulfil his task in a spirit that is helpful to the community?"

The chief public duty of the press is to get current history straight. That is its most important obligation to society and the state. But while the press in its relation to history is of paramount concern as it writes history rather than as it utilizes or makes history, it is well to remind ourselves that perfection in the writing of history, under any circumstances whatever, is difficult. My Oxford professor, whom I have been quoting so freely, has a chapter on the defects of historical writers—that is, learned and indefatigable men who take years to write a single book. In reading Taine on the French Revolution, or Froude and Macaulay among English writers, are you getting history in the truest sense, or something very brilliant and artistically alluring that is palmed off on you as history? There are Canadian school histories that do not mention the battle of New Orleans, because it was fought after the treaty of Ghent was signed. One of the worst offenses of the press, from the viewpoint of the severely scientific historian, is the ordinary newspaper obituary, because of the unwritten law that only the virtues of the dead should be mentioned by the writer. Yet that is an offense which public opinion most gladly tolerates. Allowances, then, must be made for the press in its writing of history while the history is making.

Before proceeding farther, we should not ignore, furthermore, the undoubted achievement of the press in easing the burdens of historians. One more quotation from my Oxford professor, and then, not without a lively sense of gratitude, I am through with him. He says:

"The invention of printing has made a vast difference to the first part of the historian's business, the ascertainment of facts, especially since newspapers have become common. . . . For dealing with any ancient or medieval subject, the materials available are probably scanty; and the most frequently recurring difficulty is that of determining how much credence is to be given to statements made, when there is seldom an opportunity of comparing the accounts of independent writers. In the modern world the historian may suffer from a superabundance of materials; he may have great trouble in forming a clear judgment from a mass of narratives describing the same event from different points of view, some per-

haps with obvious partiality. But the bulk of the information as to the facts which the historian needs as a basis of his narrative requires no sifting whatever, and no time need be expended on verifying it. For instance, he has on record in the newspapers every detail concerning the passing of a given bill through Parliament. . . . All matters of general interest are similarly public property, whether happening at home or abroad—the death of a great personage, the conclusion of a treaty, the completion of a new enterprise, a new scientific discovery. . . . The real motives actuating statesmen, the underground currents which produce a change in public opinions or beliefs, remain matters of inference on which the historian must exercise his judgment as much as ever, but the actual facts may be said to be known. To put it more accurately, the records of them are so full and so multifarious that belief in their having happened amounts to practical certainty."

The press has done all that for modern history. The fact reinforces what I said before, not that history is the press, but that the press is history.

Now the reporter, and I use the word reporter in a sufficiently broad sense to include all who ascertain and report facts for publication,—the reporter has his weaknesses. But his weaknesses simply make him more interesting as a psychological problem. And if he is a psychological problem, the reporter is none the less entitled to be called a historian. In order to fortify myself at this point, let me call your attention to what Professor Karl Lamprecht says in his book entitled "What is History?" I don't pretend for a moment that I understand Professor Lamprecht's theories, for I never succeeded in reading through his book; but here is something he wrote that helps me out a little in discussing Professor Munsterberg's "case of the reporter." "Foremost and clearest," says the German historian, "is history's connection with psychology. *History in itself is nothing but applied psychology.* Hence we must look to theoretical psychology to give us the clew to its true interpretation." Now if history in itself is nothing but applied psychology, the claim of the press to be regarded as history is strengthened inasmuch as the press may be said to suffer from psychology more than any other branch of history. And when I say the press suffers from psychology, I have in mind of course what Prof. Munsterberg calls "the case of the reporter."

There are reporters and reporters. The ideal reporter does not exist. He couldn't exist. The ideal reporter would ruthlessly print absolutely everything that is not meant for publication, and the best current history, scientifically considered, is what is not meant for publication. Some of it gets printed occasionally, and then it is apt to be branded by somebody much concerned as an "absolute and wilful falsehood." I was much amused recently by an article in the *Survey* on the Lawrence strike, written by an honored Lawrence citizen, Judge Rowell. "Very few of the numerous accounts sent from here," wrote the judge, "have truthfully presented the situation. . . . The picture of Lawrence as drawn by the various special

correspondents has not been a true one"—and the judge had the various correspondents of the *Survey* itself in mind. I thought that was rich. For the *Survey's* correspondents were no ordinary reporters. They were most conscientious, highly trained "welfare workers." There were even sociologists among them. The shock I received from this revelation recalls the surprise I felt when a woman told me that she couldn't believe a word in the advertisements printed in the newspaper with which I am connected. I had long known that no one could believe a word of what appeared in the rest of the paper, but I had cherished the belief that the advertisements told the truth. If the advertisements could not be believed, then all was lost.

Speaking more seriously, I would call your attention to the greatest reporting done in this country in the past sixty years. I refer to Gideon Welles's Diary. John T. Morse, Jr., in his introduction to the volumes, remarks that the permanent suppression of this work would have been "a national disaster." It was not deemed advisable to publish it in a substantially unexpurgated form, however, until everyone mentioned in it was dead and a half century had passed since the writing of it. That was simply because Gideon Welles told the unvarnished truth, about men and events as he saw them. If the diary had been printed day by day in the newspapers, as he wrote it, Mr. Welles could not have remained in public life twenty-four hours. Yet now it is recognized, as Mr. Morse says, that this diary "is among the most valuable documents within reach of our historical writers." I confess to a thrill of pride because of the fact that Gideon Welles was trained in the journalism of his time, that he was for years a country editor in the neighboring city of Hartford. His remarkable achievement in that diary reflects real credit upon the press, the country press especially, of the middle period of the nineteenth century. And I have a feeling that Gideon Welles's training as a country editor, rather than as a metropolitan editor, was not without effect in the production of so excellent an inside view of the cabinets of Abraham Lincoln and Andrew Johnson. The country editor in this valley of ours two or three generations ago was as much a reporter as an editor. His personal acquaintance included everybody. He could print nothing about anyone in his constituency without knowing that he would be held socially accountable as an individual. His personal friendships were at stake, not to say the esteem with which he was personally regarded by the semi-rural community in which he lived. While those intimate personal relations with everybody tended to make cowards of some country editors, still the restraints of such an environment served to keep the most daring editor within the bounds of truth in whatever he did print. He learned to recognize very early in his career a certain moral responsibility that he bore in the performance of his labors.

Modern city journalism, especially the journalism of the larger cities, suffers terribly from the entire lack of the restraints to which intimate personal acquaintance with everybody imposed upon the country

journalism of Gideon Welles's time. No one nowadays horsewhips the editor, and the duel as a curb on journalistic offenses survives only in France. One result in America of this state of affairs is precisely what Prof. Munsterberg complained of. We have a carnival of faking and shameless mendacity among the least scrupulous of the "gentlemen of the press." There is surely enough "applied psychology" in all this to suit Prof. Lamprecht's idea of what history is; but my idea is that "the case of the reporter," which Prof. Munsterberg has stated, is to a considerable extent a question of moral education.

The blame for certain deplorable conditions should not be loaded on to the reporter, to be sure. Perhaps he should not be held responsible at all. In a very real sense, he is the victim of a type of journalism notable in our day for its sensationalism, which has a conspicuously commercial basis. But, curiously enough, even our modern "yellow press" seems to be a survival in journalism of what may be called the "heroic-poem" style of history. The yellow newspaper usually seeks at any cost to dramatize events, to personify conditions political, social and economic. The cheap popular magazine does the same thing. And this is due largely to the fact that these journals gain large circulations mainly among the uneducated and certainly not highly cultivated people of the country. Prof. Lamprecht says: "History is primarily a socio-psychological science. In the conflict between the new and old tendencies in historical investigation, the main question has to do with social-psychic, as compared and contrasted with individual psychic factors; or, to speak somewhat generally, the understanding on the one hand of conditions, on the other of heroes, as the motive powers in the course of history."

Again, Prof. Lamprecht writes of the course of history that "it begins always with the individual psychological investigation of the past, and arrives finally at a markedly social-psychological point of view. In a word, it is the course of events which begins with the heroic poem and ends with the history of civilization."

Now this is certainly interesting in relation to our subject, if it tends to identify modern yellow journalism, keyed up to an exaggerated, even mendacious emphasis on the individual and to a feverish quest for heroes and villains, with the "heroic-poem" period, or style, of history and historical writing. It all suggests that if we desire to reform the press, we must begin with those general social or cultural conditions which make a nation's civilization. Yet, after all, there remains the question of the moral education of the men who make the press. Something may be done through them.

And this brings me to close quarters with you teachers of history. In order to do the right from any motive worthy of respect, one must *love* the right. In order to tell the truth consistently and steadily, one must *love* the truth. How can reporters, these historians of the day and the week, be made to love the truth so that they will hate any form of conscious misrepresentation? In answering this question, we

are confronted with the fact that mere knowledge does not give one moral power, does not strengthen the will to do moral things. The virtue of medical students has never been increased by the knowledge they have possessed of the perils to good health involved in unclean lives. And so mere knowledge of history will never make the men of the press careful as to facts, accurate, truthful. From a utilitarian point of view, the journalist cannot possibly know too much of the history of all countries and the history of all branches of civilization. The more he knows, the more valuable he becomes in dollars and cents. But there never was a journalist whose sense of moral responsibility was increased, or whose conscience was quickened, by the mere cramming of facts into his head.

Yet history *can* be taught in a way to develop in the student a keen sense of moral values, particularly in the line of truth telling. If history is "all lies," as Napoleon cynically declared, then it should be cast to the scrap heap. But if it is the truth, as nearly as it can possibly be made, then respect for history means respect for truth, and love of history means love of truth. The problem of the moral education of the journalist, therefore, assuming you can catch him young enough, is that of filling him with respect for and love of history.

In that richly-endowed school of journalism which has been established in connection with Columbia University, the teaching of history would be unworthy of the name if it should not cultivate in this way journalistic morality. There should be the strongest insistence upon the sacredness of facts. Truth telling should be recognized as the journalist's religion. I do not pretend to present such a subject from a pedagogical viewpoint. Methods of teaching I know nothing about. But, as I conceive the possibilities of history teaching, in the training of young journalists, an entirely new tone could be given to my business in a generation or two.

Practically speaking, why could there not be in the department of history what one may call historical post-mortems, or the dissection of historical corpses, after the style of medical school study of the human body? Take some event in the past suitable for the purpose—some event that aroused controversy and passion—and study it as it appeared to contemporaries, in the light of the newspapers, speeches and public records of the day, and then study the process by which what we call "the truth of history" finally triumphed over misrepresentation and falsehood. Such study would possess dramatic interest inasmuch as it would reveal truth and falsehood struggling for supremacy. The student would see how history as he now reads it in the books emerged from the befogged and beclouded history actually in the making; and the knowledge thus acquired would make him, in his later career as a journalist, a sounder judge and surer critic of the history being made before his own eyes. Having studied in the historical clinic many celebrated distortions and perversions of the actual facts for whatever purpose by partisans, he would learn to reserve judgment on many things happening,

to look for gaps in the evidence and so far as possible to penetrate human equations and motives. He would become a far better reporter of events, a more searching commentator upon public controversies. Thus he would the more surely expose bad causes, and promote good causes.

The journalist trained to hate shams, to abhor the untrue, cannot fail to sympathize deeply with the aim of the scientist, as Huxley stated it: "To smite all humbugs however big; to give a nobler tone to science; to set an example of toleration in everything but lying; to be indifferent as to whether the work be recognized, so long as it is done."

I cannot close without saying that history teaching everywhere can be made a moral force. The pursuit of truth is in itself morally uplifting. For truth can neither lie nor steal and, once established as an ideal in one's mind, it must ennoble character. The "case of the reporter" might almost be said to be in the hands of you teachers of history; your ennobling influence upon the press of the future, and consequently upon the history which shall be born of the future, may become incalculable if your teaching is aflame with the ideal that facts are sacred and that truth is holy.¹

The Teaching of Government

BY GEORGE P. HITCHCOCK, LL.B., HIGH SCHOOL,
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With the supplies that bountiful nature once provided rapidly diminishing, and now altogether removed from the people at large; with the public lands all taken, water power sites gone, the thoughtful are beginning to take stock of what remains. After a careful survey they have come to the conclusion that about all that is left is the *air supply*—and that is left because man cannot exhaust it nor can be "corner" it. Pretty much everything else in the way of natural resources once the common property of man or the absolute property of any who had the initiative and perseverance to be a pioneer is "going, going, almost gone." Although the statements given above are true and the conclusions obvious, we are happy to be able to state that there is still hope for man on the earth and the melancholy prognosis which the pessimists have made must be modified. Why? Because it leaves out of account one vast life-sustaining resource, a never-failing succor in time of need, indeed, a mine of wealth for some. I refer to the *public funds*.

Is poor, bed-ridden Mr. Jenks a heavy charge on his relatives and the local G. A. R. post? Why has the ungrateful government never given him a pension? Has he never asked for it? Well, the truth is Mr. Jenks is modest and retiring by nature. He retired from his regiment quite early in his period of enlistment without bothering the authorities with any requests for a discharge. "Oh, never mind that," says a prominent citizen. "I know Congressman Blank, of

¹ Read before the New England History Teachers' Association, at Springfield, Mass., April 20, 1912.

this district. He is a veritable Aladdin in getting things for his people."

Sure enough, the Hon. A. B. Blank presents a bill in the House to have Private Jenks's record "*corrected*" and a pension with full back pay awarded him. It goes through the House without a dissenting vote; through the Senate it passes in a total elapsed time of one minute and a quarter; and the President, unless his name is Cleveland, signs the bill making it law for the people to express their tardy appreciation for Mr. Jenks's services in behalf of his country in cold cash.

The town of Sundance,—we all know Sundance—is a busy, thriving, hopeful, growing town in Wyoming. The census, to be sure, credits it with a population of only two hundred and eighty-one souls, all in the flesh; but it is hopeful of the future and not without reason apparently, for the other day the Senate voted a post-office building to cost seventy-five thousand dollars. Four other towns of the same class received \$317,500 of our national revenues for public buildings that same day.

The state votes to build a hospital for the insane in a district well removed from the city. The building is to be on high land, but adjoining this site a quarter of a mile away, Mr. A. owns forty acres of miasmatic swamp which he alleges he was about to lay out in building lots. Now the land is valueless for that purpose, because sensitive, highly-refined people would never live in houses where they would be continually stared at by the inmates of an insane hospital. He asks of the commission damages which are finally assessed at fifty thousand dollars. With this award, Mr. A. is enabled to drain the swamp and make of it a fine market garden from which he supplies vegetables in their season to the hospital at rates in advance of the market prices.

And so it goes, in town, city, state, and nation. Do not imagine for a moment that anyone should object to this on the ground that it is plunder, or even extravagance. Government exists primarily as an eleemosynary institution. It used to be said the prime function of government was the protection of its citizens. We know now that this meant the protection of certain of its citizens against possible poverty. On the other hand, the citizen was required to give his support and obedience to the government in return for its protection, and this he still does to his material advantage.

Now, accepting things as they are—we are not quarreling with the propensity of our representatives to give this protection generously, what is the duty of teachers of government in the training of our future citizens? Is it to visit a session of the legislature with the class? Yes, perhaps so. To study the procedure of the criminal courts? It may be useful for some of them. I do it. Is it to follow current events? To read the "Congressional Record"? To watch the progress of the Referendum, Recall, and the New Nationalism? Very likely. All those devices are good. But a teacher of government I know pretty well uses the hour his class meets the first time and the second and the third and a part of all the other

times in asking again and again the question, "Who pays the bill?" Indeed, I may say he regards it as his *mission* to get the test applied to all public questions. To him it is at present a most important service in relating the individual to the community.

Whether the expense is to be cared for by direct taxation or indirect; whether the nation is to be charged for a mere extravagance or for the benefit of a class—the protective tariff, you know, is imposed solely for the benefit of the American laboring man and his family—we strip the question of all its other relations, and ask "Who pays the bill?"

I have found that a good way to get a principle before a class, with a certainty of its being understood, is to put a problem before them without comment; often without even a question at the end. Let them make the comments.

A. B., member of Congress from an Indiana district, is driven to an evening session of the House in a cab. On arriving at his destination he gets into a serious altercation with the driver over the fare charged. From words they come to blows, and both are arrested by a policeman on duty at that end of the capitol. A. B. claims immunity from arrest in that he was going to a session of the House. (Immunity does not cover treason, felony, or breach of the peace.)

To protect their young spruce trees from extinction, the state of Maine places a tax of twenty-five cents on every Christmas tree shipped out of the state. A shipper refuses to pay, and in the action that follows defends on Constitutional grounds. (Tax on exports, Art. I, Sec. x, c. 2.)

The postmastership in a town being vacant, the President desires to appoint Mr. M. to the position, knowing him to be honest, capable, and efficient. He does so without consulting anybody, save the Postmaster-General, who also knows him. Senator S., of the state in which the town is situated, has previously suggested that the President appoint Mr. N. to the position. Although the appointment was made two months ago, and Mr. M. is ready to begin his duties, the place remains vacant. (Confirming power, Senatorial courtesy.)

It is surprising to find after a few months training of this sort how keen to discover a principle a class will become. In what I have said, it is true, but one of several phases of the importance of the study of government has been treated. A course in government should touch a considerable number of others. In this day, however, taxation, its purpose, its abuse, its burdens and their remedies touch every member of the community, as no other question does. It would be wholesome for all citizens to examine and study, though perhaps not to adopt in its entirety, Jefferson's view which he stated in his first inaugural address:

"The sum of good government is a wise and frugal government which shall restrain men from injuring one another, but shall leave them otherwise free to regulate their own pursuits."

If everyone realized the *source* of the inexhaustible supply of the public funds it would be hard for the grafter anywhere to make a decent living.

Public money would be cared for as well as money in the savings banks. If a little leaven of this sort were put in the mind of every high school boy or girl for twenty years, we should have no more pork barrels in Washington, no more policemen taking money for protecting that which the community pays them to destroy. The city would no longer pay twice or three times the value of the land it needs for a park or a street. In short, we should begin to realize that the public funds though inexhaustible and hitherto quite accessible, are fundamentally different in some respects from the gaseous envelope of the earth which we may still use and for which, thank Heaven, we are not yet charged.

Time fails me to speak at length of other matters which a course in government should emphasize. The fathers of our country in providing machinery of government which contains so many checks and balances did not provide a model which has worked well when applied to municipal government. The class should be made to see that efficiency in administration can best be secured when full responsibility and power are lodged in one elected head to whom all other members of the executive branch shall be subordinate and responsible.

They should be made to see that waste of money, grotesque affronts to civic beauty, inconvenience to traffic and danger to the public health can be averted if expert boards of municipal improvement are early in the field with power to recommend and supervise when construction is authorized. But, above all, an intelligent and courageous public spirit should be stimulated which shall not be led astray by appeals to prejudice, maudlin sentimentality, or that kind of patriotism which is ever in quest of an appropriation.¹

Professorship in Latin-American History and Economics at Harvard.

Realizing the importance of American interests in the Latin-American Republics, and the need in the United States for the study of their history and of the conditions obtaining in those countries, a graduate of Harvard has made an endowment for the establishment of a professorship of Latin-American History and Economics in Harvard University. The income from this permanent fund is to be devoted to the salary of this professor in such amount as may be determined, and the surplus, if any, is to be devoted to the purchase of books, to defraying the expenses of persons invited to speak in the University, or used for such other purposes as the president and faculty shall determine will best further instruction under this professorship.

At the seventh annual meeting of the Ohio Valley Historical Society, held October 23-25 at Lexington, Kentucky, Dr. J. M. Callahan, professor of history and political science at the West Virginia University, was elected president for the ensuing year; and Charleston, West Virginia, was selected as the place for holding the 1914 meeting of the society.

¹ Read before the New England History Teachers' Association, at Springfield, Mass., April 20, 1912.

The Place and the Value of Local History¹

BY WILBUR F. GORDY.

Mr. Gordy spoke from the standpoint of both the student and the teacher of history. The following is the substance of his address:

The prominence now given to the study of history in our schools and colleges is both a cause and an effect of modern conditions of life. This statement will be more convincing if we set before us the fundamental elements of all education. They are four: the acquisition of knowledge, the development of power, the formation of ideals, and an increased ability to make the proper adjustments to the world of life and action surrounding the individual. In other words, in order to live happy and useful lives as members of society, we need (1) all the knowledge we can gain of ourselves and of our surroundings; we need also (2) power,—power to feel, power to think, and power to will, that is, to express thought and feeling in word and deed. These two essentials of education are important, but they alone would fail to make of the individual a worthy member of society. To this end he needs (3) ideals, in order that he may use his knowledge and his power in the right way; and he must have (4) the ability to make the proper adjustments if he is to cooperate with his fellows in the institutional life with which he will later be identified as a citizen and as a man.

Now it is these last two elements of education which history is preëminently fitted to give. And in so doing it performs an invaluable service because it humanizes, socializes, moralizes the individual, and thus prepares him for the various phases of group life which he must experience if he is to be a useful member of the community.

But if history is to render such a service it must not be regarded merely as a scientific record of what men have thought and felt and done, a record which is to be studied and memorized, to be recited in the class-room, and to become a part of the learner's scholarship. A better, truer, and higher conception of history is that it functions in useful men and women, in wise parents, in efficient workers, and in large-spirited citizens. History when regarded by the student and the teacher in this way is applied history in just as real and true a sense as any phase of science or mathematics may be called applied science or applied mathematics. These two studies are applied in the scientific and material world; while history is applied in the social and moral world. It does not end in that sort of culture which we think of as making life more enjoyable and aesthetic in the library or by the fireside, but in higher and more fruitful service to humanity.

All this means that the study of history is the study of human life, of the laws which govern human conduct, and of those abiding principles which are ele-

¹ Read at the meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association, May 23, 1913.

mental in their application to all human relationships. According to this conception, history deals with two sets of phenomena, an outer and an inner. The first has to do with outward actions, with deeds and events; the second, with the inner life of thought and emotion which lies behind these and prompts all of man's activity. The first deals with the organized body of historic knowledge; the second, with the living spirit of striving, suffering, aspiring humanity. Intellect, judgment and reason, aided by memory, suffice for the mastery of the first; but for the appreciation and true assimilation of the second, both the imagination and the emotions must be called into play. This can be done only by making the past live again. If in reciting a heroic deed, a stirring event, or indeed any recorded fact or event of history, the student can truly say, "It all happened in the spot where we are gathered together," a strong appeal is made to the senses which join memory and imagination in making vivid the past and in connecting it with the present. Herein lies the extreme value of local history and the visiting of local historic spots.

Mr. Gordy then gave an illustration of his meaning by referring to his experience, years ago, in teaching the highest grammar grade in Hartford. He explained briefly, but in some detail, the historical excursions he used to make every year with his class to historic spots in and near Hartford. These historic spots included the place where the Charter Oak stood, that part of the Connecticut River from which Mason's expedition against the Pequots started out, and the house in Wethersfield where Washington met Rochambeau to work out plans for the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown. When the class reached any historic spot, one or more pupils, appointed in advance to make very careful preparation, always re-

cited in some detail the event which had taken place there.

One of these historical excursions, as outlined by the speaker, was a visit to the rooms of the Connecticut Historical Society. This annual excursion took the place of an afternoon school session. The first part of the afternoon was spent in listening to impersonations of prominent historical characters. The impersonating pupils always spoke in the first person, and when each had finished a brief recital of his life and work, the remainder of the class guessed whom he represented. This exercise always aroused keen interest. It was all very stimulating "because we were sitting," said Mr. Gordy, "in the presence of pictured faces on the wall and of historical relics of great value. For example, after the impersonations, we examined the watch once owned by Benedict Arnold, the chest which was brought over on the Mayflower, the maul used by Abraham Lincoln in splitting the 1,400 rails for his blue jeans suit, and so on. Perhaps at the end of the afternoon the pupil did not know any more facts than he could have learned by remaining in his class-room at school, but he knew these facts in a different and more vital way."

The speaker then said that while Hartford and Boston offered peculiarly favorable opportunities for such historical excursions, at the same time most places had once been the focal centers for historical events of at least local interest and significance.

"All such work," said Mr. Gordy, in conclusion, "increases the children's patriotism and pride in their own town or city; it connects the past with the present and with the pupils' own lives; and, best of all, perhaps, it helps them to realize what history is in its dramatic quality as a revelation of the life of the past, so rich in color and in human interest."

Commercial and Industrial History in Secondary Schools

BY PROFESSOR CLIVE DAY, YALE UNIVERSITY.

When we students of history speak of the Industrial Revolution of the Eighteenth Century we must remember that this was but the beginning of a great movement in which we are still immersed. The mechanical inventions of Arkwright, Watts, and others, did make great changes in England before 1800. Their chief significance, however, lay in the fact that they were the beginning of a series of changes. The improvements in technique did not spend their force, but gathered new force with the passage of time. The addition which they made to the economic power of man furnished him with a surplus which multiplied his power again, as he invested it in new engines of production, conquered by it new territories, bred up by it a new race of leaders and laborers. It was not until about 1850 that the full significance of the Industrial Revolution became apparent. The steam engine, which had before established itself in certain industries, now became the regular source of power in all industries. Applied to transportation, on sea and land, it broke through the boundaries that had sep-

arated countries and continents, and made of the world one market. The achievements of 1850 make those of 1800 seem but bare beginnings.

Yet the movement still goes on. If the men of 1850 thought that they had left far behind them their predecessors of 1800, how much further behind us do the men of 1850 appear to be. The United States developed more rapidly in the generation following the Civil War than in the century preceding it: Germany, in the generation covering the period from 1870 to 1900 made progress equally phenomenal. Continents like Asia, South America, Africa, and Australia, which had been, before 1850, entirely outside the current of the world's progress, or on the bare margin of it, felt now the full force of the current, and contributed to it new power from their own resources.

The changes which began in the sphere of man's economic activities and which registered their primary effects in the economic organization have left untouched none of man's activities or interests. In the

field of politics there has been a revolution scarcely less sweeping than in that of economics, and contemporary political changes in such different countries as England and Russia, the United States and China, show not only how widespread is the movement, but also how unabated is its force.

To follow further the changes of the past century is unnecessary. Yet I am unwilling to approach my special topic without this preliminary reference to them, for they underlie the demand for a change in the matter and the manner of education, and if we seek to solve successfully the educational problems which crowd upon us we must have ever present in mind the fact of these changes, and must adapt to them our reform of the curriculum in school and college.

The words of the English catechism teaching us that we should learn and labor truly to get our own living and to do our duty in that station of life unto which it has pleased God to call us, meant something vastly different before 1800 from what they mean to-day. Children were born then into a simple organization still regulated largely by custom. It was the natural thing for a boy to do what his father had done, do it in the same way in which his father had done it, die in the station in which his father had died. He had little need of a knowledge of economic affairs, if he did this; and very few thought of doing anything else. He needed as little a knowledge of political affairs, for the public authorities did not seek his opinion in making the laws or in administering them.

Our whole attitude has changed. Our principle now is that a child should find his station in life and his occupation. We talk of a boy "making a place for himself," and scarcely realize how foreign this conception is to the principles of our ancestors and to the system of education which we have inherited from them. We assume such knowledge on the part of the boys and their immediate advisers as will enable them to choose a path in a very labyrinth of crossing ways. Or, to amend the metaphor, we start our boys on a journey over unexplored country where there are no paths. The man fails now who seeks to follow the track of a predecessor. Only he arrives at full success who has the knowledge and judgment required to lay a course in the wilderness. Not everyone is a pathmaker; and most of us must be content to follow some leader. But how shall we choose when the leaders follow no beaten track, halloved by custom, but strike out in new courses, and promise to bring us to our goal by ways that to timid hearts seem fraught with danger?

The result of the past century has been not only to break the force of custom in the choice and pursuit of occupations. It reaches deeper, for it has taught us not only to accept change, but to demand more change, ceaseless change. We realize that the interests of society as well as of the individual depend upon successful innovation, and we demand of every individual that he take seriously the responsibility of making his way, and that he choose his way aright.

So, little by little, we are changing our system of education to equip our children properly for the new

demands upon them. As we expect them to exercise their reason both in economics and politics we must train them for the work. The question which I propose to discuss here is the contribution which instruction in a special subject, the history of commerce and industry, can make to this end. What advantages does it offer which are not found in equal measure in other subjects? What justifies us in admitting it to a curriculum which to many of us seems already overcrowded? The question is one of relative, not of absolute merit, and it will be necessary in this connection to consider the claims of other subjects which might be chosen as instruments for the same purpose.

One subject would appear, at first glance, to have the best claim upon us, if we seek to train our children to a comprehension of our present economic life, and of the part which they may play in it,—namely, economics. Economics has long been established in the curriculum of the colleges, and it is beginning to make its way into the schools, particularly in the west. I view this movement, I must confess, with misgiving. Economics, "the science of modern business" as Hadley defines it, is certainly a subject of first-rate importance for the purpose which we have here in view; and every citizen who aspires to make his own way in the world, as producer and as voter, is better equipped if he is master of its principles and of their application. Yet one may agree to that proposition and still question the wisdom of introducing the study of economics in its present form, into the high school course. From my own experience with college sophomores, I am inclined to doubt whether the average schoolboy does master economic principles and their applications so efficiently that it is profitable to attempt to teach them to him. The occasional examples that I have observed, of students who have studied economics before they came to college, have made a poor showing; they seemed to have missed one of the great benefits of an education, namely, finding out how much they did not know. They used the terms of economics fluently, but they did not know what they were talking about when they used them; and they were more difficult subjects to train in proper methods of thinking than were the others who came fresh to the subject in the college course.

A mastery of economics implies something more than a formal knowledge of the laws of supply and demand. It involves a practical acquaintance with the facts of production, exchange and distribution, in a complex organization in which political and social factors are just as important as the economic factors. Many of the laws of economics may be expressed in algebraical formulas. Any high school student of algebra may study them in that form; but he remains still a mere student of algebra if he has not at his command the facts of business and of law to substitute for the terms of the equation, and if he cannot explain the infinite divergence from the abstract theory which the facts generally present. Two things, an acquaintance with the facts of life, and judgment in reasoning about the facts, are necessary for the successful study of economics. Some people

acquire these faculties by practical experience, and, with little book-learning, are really better economists than are some of our doctors of philosophy. To most people these two faculties, an acquaintance with the facts of life, and judgment in reasoning about the facts, are the fruit of considerable maturity. I doubt whether the average high school student has them in such measure as to fit him to study economics as the subject is now currently presented; and I believe that we should seek to train these faculties in him before we attempt to teach him the formal doctrines of economics.

Let me summarize now my position in this matter, and let me state it dogmatically, while at the same time I confess that I speak from a limited experience, and invite the criticism of those who view the matter from a different standpoint. (1) Economics is a subject of such importance to the worker and voter under our present system, that it should be taught to as many citizens as practicable. (2) The subject in its present form can be mastered, and can be made a useful instrument, only by those who have such acquaintance with the facts of life, and such judgment in reasoning about the facts, as imply either natural maturity or special training. (3) The attempt to teach economics, in its present form, to students who lack these faculties, will defeat its object. The study of economics in the schools must be preceded by work which will effectively train these faculties. The benefits of such work are certain, whether or not time is afterward found for formal instruction in economics.

If this position is correct the question resolves itself into the discovery of a subject which will supply the preliminary training desired; and I propose that we consider in this connection the merits and defects of a study of economic history,—the history of commerce and industry.

In the first place, economic history is largely, though not wholly, a statement of fact; the study of it necessitates a study of facts. It has a concreteness and reality which young students can apprehend when they are still unable to comprehend abstract principles such as form the subject matter of economics and the other social sciences.

Again the history of commerce introduces students to the study of the economic organization in a period when it was vastly more simple and intelligible than it is to-day. It is true, indeed, that if we seek to explain all the features of the early economic organization we have a task of surpassing difficulty, on which the best historical scholars have been working with results which are still uncertain. We should try to teach, however, not what we do not know, but what we do know; and in every period since the Dark Ages there is ample material for instruction in the development of the commercial organization. We can start at a time when credit and banking are a negligible factor; when the speculative capitalistic system of production and distribution was unknown. If we analyse the situation in Europe about 1100 we find ourselves studying an organization in which commerce was present only in its germs. The economic

problems of this period resolve themselves largely into questions of technique; how men were to produce on their own land the food and clothing materials necessary for their subsistence; how they were to manufacture by themselves the simple necessities which commerce was still incapable of providing; how they were to manage their surplus to secure themselves against the ever-present menace of want and famine. A modern business man, conversant with our elaborate system of production and exchange, would find himself far from home in such an organization. The young student, however, should find himself at home in it, for the very reason that its problems are the problems of a home economy, in which the household was a nearly independent unit; and I believe he can be more easily taught to understand the contrast in housekeeping then and now, than he can be taught the mechanism of our present business system.

Starting with this simple organization it should be possible to trace the development step by step, introducing each new feature of commercial and industrial practice by a study of its form and advantages, and its reaction on other features of the organization.

I have found two advantages offered by the history of commerce as a subject of study; first, that it is matter of fact, secondly, that it has to do with relatively simple facts. A third advantage, at least equal in importance to either of the others, is this, that it presents economic facts in their relation to important facts of other kinds, social, legal and political. Note the contrast here between economic history and economics. Economic science reaches its end, the formulation of abstract principles, by assuming a certain set of conditions, almost never met in real life, and showing what will happen under these hypothetical conditions. The object of economics is a worthy one; economists have shown great ability in working toward their object; the results of their work, to him who knows how to use them, are of the first importance. But only he can use them who can take them from their hypothetical setting, and apply them to the varied conditions of actual life. Economic principles go only part way, and sometimes only a little way, to help us in the solution of problems which are ordinarily termed economic. For example take commercial policy as instanced in the customs tariff. So much has been said, during the past two centuries, of the relative advantages of free trade and protection, from the point of view of economics, that to economists the question is practically a dead issue; agreement on this point is much more general than is commonly supposed. Yet the nations of the world differ as much as ever in the customs policy which they pursue; and any particular country, like our own, alters its policy abruptly and, from the point of view of economics, quite unreasonably. The explanation is simple; the tariff always has been and always will be a matter not of economics but of politics. Economists may say what they please; politicians will determine the question. So likewise the currency policy has always been a political question, and in the United States unfortunately has been and remains a party question. Deeper still lie institutions of pri-

vate property and personal liberty, which the economist is inclined to treat as the stable foundations of his hypothetical structure; yet which are seen by the historian and the social philosopher to be living growths, always in process of change, and capable on occasion of movements so sudden and violent that the whole structure reared on them crumbles and has to be erected anew.

In contrast to the economist, who reasons about things as they might be, the historian makes it his task to describe and explain things as they were. He is a realist. Even though he may propose to discuss only one field of human activity, as, for example, the history of commerce, he must follow facts as far as they lead him. He may set out to give an account of the medieval trade in salt or silk or wax or herrings. His study of the exchange of these wares leads him inevitably to the study of other related things; other features of the economic organization, the legal and political institutions of the time, the policy of groups of people organized in states, even the military and religious activities of the people concerned. If he lives up to his ideals he must make his study as broad as human life itself. Practical considerations do limit the scope of his work. If he is working in economic history, he relies upon the results of workers in the other fields, and presents these results in summaries, to explain conditions in the field of his own particular interests. He never gets to the bottom of things. He presents a picture which is always incomplete and which is often but a mere sketch. The results are suggestive rather than conclusive.

Taken alone, therefore, the history of commerce may be a very imperfect instrument in the education of the citizen or the scholar. It yields its best results only when it is combined with other subjects which supply its deficiencies, and when it is taught by one who understands its relations to these other subjects. Economic history deserves a place in the school curriculum only when it is taught in such a manner as to make the most of its peculiar advantages.

Now that I have considered the advantages of the history of commerce as a subject to prepare the student for the responsibilities of business and citizenship let me raise the question whether it is the best subject for this purpose. Time is nowadays so precious in our schooling that we cannot afford to spend it on any subject, however good it may be, if we can discover another which is even a little better. There is such a subject, I believe, though I cannot assert that it is yet ready for our use. The subject which I have in mind I shall term economic organization, and I shall attempt to describe its content and suggest its advantages by presenting it in comparison with the other subjects which we have been considering.

The best features of economic history I have enumerated as being, first, its concreteness or reality; second, its broadness, and third, its simplicity. Its worst feature lies in the fact that like other branches of history it deals with the more or less distant past.

Some teachers of history may be inclined to resent the statement that the characteristic which distin-

guishes history is at the same time the weakest feature of history, considered as a subject of study. From one aspect, indeed, the fact that history concerns itself with the past constitutes its real strength, for it opens to the student a variety of experiences, a wealth of illustration and a certitude of documentary evidence which he could secure in no other way. Simply because we cannot secure the material which we want in the present we must and always shall study the past. Yet I assert again, that we study it for lack of something better to study which is near to us, just as the naturalist is forced for some purposes to study by a dissection of the dead body rather than by an observation of the living animal. The only reason that I can see for studying the economic history of the past is the aid that it offers toward an understanding of the conditions of the present and future. Can we not take a more direct route to our goal, and study, if not the immediate present, at least a past so recent, so closely connected with actual conditions and events, that it appeals immediately to the interests of the student, and is more readily comprehended by him?

Objections to such a plan rise in our minds as soon as we consider it. The orthodox historian will say that our knowledge of the recent past is vague and fragmentary, that it attains to a reasonable certitude only as the documents gradually come to light and yield their information under the scrutiny of patient and critical scholarship. This objection I consider of doctrinal rather than of practical importance; it proceeds from professionals to whom history is an end in itself rather than the means to an end. We may know enough of recent history to teach it effectively even though we may not know enough to write it definitively.

It may be urged, further, that if we limit our field to the recent past we renounce the chief contribution that history can make, its variety of fact, and lose the peculiar advantage of proceeding from simple beginnings through a regular course of development to the complex present. There is justice in this contention; yet it does not seem to me by any means of decisive importance. The world which we call contemporary actually includes types of all the ages. A few hours on the train will take the traveler from the highly-developed organization of lower New York to villages which present many features of a rudimentary system. Even a State like New Jersey, distinguished for its receptiveness to the most modern forms of corporate organization, offers to the explorer of its Pine Barrens, I am told, types of people who are not only economically self-sufficient, but who are also medieval in their ideas of law and politics, and pre-Christian in their religious conceptions. In Europe the variety of type is even more striking, including samples of every stage from the medieval in Russia and the Balkan States, to the most modern in Germany and England.

The student, therefore, who confines himself to so-called contemporary history, may still study features of development which differ by generations and by centuries of time; and he has always the advantage of studying types which lived so recently that he can

readily recognize them and trace their activity in his present day.

The real reason why we have not substituted a study of the contemporary organization for a study of the past, seems to me to lie not so much in theoretical objections to that course, as in practical difficulties attending it. We have gone ahead so fast in the past century that scholars have not had time to keep up with the actual changes. The students of human society, whether in the present or the past, have tried to lighten a tremendous burden by dividing it among themselves, and by apportioning it among different groups of specialists—the historians, the economists, the geographers, the anthropologists, the sociologists. Results in the separate sciences have been such as to justify this course, if we consider each science by itself. Yet the results have been achieved by specialists, and are framed for the particular benefit of specialists; the interests of the general student have suffered in the process. We need now a new group of specialists, namely, those who will generalize in several different fields. Particularly, it seems to me, have the interests of education suffered from the divorce of history and economics in recent generations. The economists have been tempted too far into abstraction, and have neglected the concrete description and explanation of actual economic facts; the historians have tended to consider the ascertainment of past facts as an end in itself, instead of as the means to an understanding of present facts and their relations. We have gained in depth, but we have lost in breadth. The scholars who have controlled the development of our instruments of education have given us tools which are excellent for turning out professional scholars, but are ill-adapted to the shaping of ordinary citizens. Too much has been written about Domesday Book; and not enough about the industrial revolution of the last fifty years. Too much has been written about marginal utility and the theory of value; not enough about the fact that Smith has an income of \$1,000 and Jones one of \$100,000, and about the how and the why of it.

Suppose, for example, that a student asks me to recommend to him some book describing the organization of business in the United States. I do not mean by that the legal or the financial aspects of modern corporations, or the technical processes involved in the production of wares. I mean the activities of the different groups of people who cooperate to decide what I want to consume, when and where it shall be made, who shall bring it to me. I want to know the contribution that each kind of man makes to this process, and the kind of living that he makes out of it. Is not the inquiry a natural one? Does it not properly precede an inquiry regarding the laws of value, or the discovery of America? Yet I can name a dozen or a score of good books on economic theory or on economic policy or on economic history, for one good book describing economic organization. So far as my knowledge extends there is only one country, Germany namely, in which this topic is studied with the serious attention that it deserves. "Das Handbuch der Wirtschaftskunde Deutschlands," of which the

fourth and last volume was published in 1904, is the only example known to me of an encyclopaedic work, written by authors of adequate training, and based on a sufficient mass of detailed preliminary studies, which pretends to meet the demand.

This demand is not met by the commercial geographies which are now in process of multiplication. If mere respect for facts could make an author great the creators of these text-books would surely rank with the immortals. Some of them give you on one page more facts than you can memorize in an hour, or will use in a life-time. They fail in synthesis of the facts, in such a reasonable combination of them as will appeal to the understanding and enable the student to grasp similar facts in other combinations. Do not understand me to utter an indiscriminate condemnation of all the work that is being done in the field of commercial geography. Some of it is original work of the highest value. We look to it now for our knowledge of the influence of physical environment on the currents of trade. We are justified in looking even further; for the modern geographer is of all scientists the one, perhaps, who has been boldest in passing the traditional boundaries, and has dared to combine the results of workers in many other fields to aid him to understand the phenomena in his own. To anthropogeography there is little that is foreign, either in man or in nature. The subject is still young, however, and its progress is delayed by the conditions which I have sketched in the fields of history and economics.

One feature in the teaching of geography, however, seems to me to indicate the route by which economists and historians may arrive at the object that they have before them. Geographers nowadays follow quite consciously the policy of proceeding from the known to the unknown. They supply regional geographies which discuss in great detail the features of that section of the country in which the student lives; and they train the teacher to begin even nearer home and to start his pupil in the study of the earth's surface by explaining familiar landmarks of the immediate vicinity. The student becomes acquainted with the home brook and mill-pond before he is introduced to the Amazon, and learns something about the hills immediately surrounding him before he is encouraged to scale the Andes.

We must adopt a similar method in economics. We shall never teach the subject effectively until we begin at home, and enable the student to orient himself in his own economic environment. He is surrounded by economic phenomena, with which he already is or readily may become acquainted, embracing all the essential features in production, exchange, distribution, and consumption. He will never arrive, unassisted, at a knowledge of economics by a study of these phenomena; yet, on the other hand, he may study economic principles indefinitely, and will have still but a feeble grasp on them, if he has not learned to apply them to the facts of life, as they are illustrated in his own experience. It seems to me that a system of economic education is wrong fundamentally, if it does not begin with these facts, if it does not

teach the student to apprehend their importance and significance, if it does not proceed from these home facts to the bigger facts of the national and international organization, and so approach gradually to the abstract principles which make up the subject of economics proper.

I must not, however, get too far away from the facts myself. And it is a fact, unfortunately, that the instruments are not yet ready for instruction of the kind that I have indicated. So far from having books which describe the characteristic features of the regional or of the local organization, we still lack satisfactory text-books for the study of the national organization. We must get along as best we can until this gap is filled. The practical questions are, what shall we teach under the circumstances, and how shall we teach it.

In answer to the first of these questions, I am inclined to say for reasons that I have already given, that economics is not fit to be taught in the preparatory years of schooling, that economic organization is not yet ready to be taught, and that economic history is the best subject to choose for purposes of instruction. The second question, on the methods of instruction, requires further consideration.

In the first place, the subject should be taught rather as an introduction to courses in economics than as a part of the school curriculum in history. Everyone recognizes now, of course, that economic factors have played a great part in historical development; and it would be quite logical to give the courses in general European history and in European economic history to the same teacher, to be handled as the related parts of one whole subject. Yet I believe that they can be and should be taught independently; and that if they are in the hands of the same teacher he should at least be one who has been trained in economics, and who is interested and versed in present economic conditions. European history by itself, offers sufficient opportunity for training the student in historical methods and criticism, and for giving him the historical point of view. The historians are tending quite generally, to include in their narrative such treatment of economic facts as is necessary for the illustration and explanation of the course of events. Economic history is not needed, therefore, for these purposes, and it is much needed in preparation for the study of economics. It must be taught with the eye on the present rather than on the past.

If this position is correct it is possible to draw some important conclusions regarding the field of study. We can well afford to omit from our course a study of economic history in ancient times. Our knowledge of the ancient period is still so insecure that questions of the first importance regarding the economic organization of the classic and Oriental peoples are in dispute, and seem likely to remain so for some time to come. Even more decisive to my mind, is the consideration that we do not need the facts of this period for the purpose of elementary instruction, if we have our eye on the present rather than on the past.

On the other hand, we should lose an opportunity if we restricted the field of our studies to the im-

mediate past, and made our course, for example, a course in the economic history of the United States. We should then be attempting a study of economic organization with the instruments provided us by the students of economic history; and the result would be ineffectual from the point of view of either subject.

We might well begin about 1100 A.D. studying first the so-called manorial organizations, and the changes due to the rise of commerce and the growth of towns; and we should aim to come down so near the present that the student may grasp the historical connection of existing economic conditions with the past. If we must have Dark Ages in history let us leave them where they belong, in the distant past, and let us not make a Dark Age of the nineteenth century.

Let me emphasize again in this connection, my conviction that the teacher of elementary economic history should have his eyes always turned toward the present. The text-books describe past facts; the temptation of the teacher who has been trained in history is to explain these facts only in terms of the past. The need of the student is to have these facts related to his present and future. The teacher may find sometimes similar facts in the present, to put beside them, and to prove that a knowledge of history is an active instrument in modern life. More often, however, the teacher will be forced to fall back upon the one great logical tie which binds all history together, the principle of cause and effect. The facts of the past are dead, beyond hope of resurrection; but the causal relations between the facts are the same now that they always have been. They are the living part of history just as they are the vital part of our present social existence.

To make clear these relations is no easy task. Often we must teach bare facts because we do not know enough to explain the facts. Yet we fail in our mission, if we are not consciously striving in this way to make economic history an active instrument in the lives of the pupils who come under our instruction.¹

In the October number of the Magazine reference was made to the quarterly number of "Vergangenheit und Gegenwart" and the limitation of its excellent bibliographical article to works in German was noted. In reply, the editor states that this restriction is entirely involuntary, and he makes an especial appeal through the Magazine to American publishers to send in for review and reference any works of an historical character.

The "Texas History Teachers' Bulletin," Volume II, No. 1, issued November 15, 1913, contains a series of helpful articles on two important aspects of history teaching, viz., supplementary reading and geography. Mr. M. R. Gutsch has a paper on "Efficiency in Supplementary Reading; J. E. Pearce discusses the "Use of the Note Book in the High School"; Emma Childers tells how to use maps in teaching history; Annie B. Hill discusses the use of parallel readings, and T. J. Calhoun also makes suggestions regarding map work. Professor W. R. Manning, of the University of Texas, summarizes the replies received from thirteen state universities west of the Mississippi, concerning efforts for the improvement of history teaching in their states.

¹ Read before the New England History Teachers' Association, October 18, 1913.

The Teaching of Greek History

V. THE HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY OF GREECE

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The relation of geography and history has been a topic of discussion for a number of years. Much has been claimed that is not borne out by the facts, and some have, perhaps, been led to believe that there has been too much emphasis placed upon their direct connection. Although we may not be willing to admit that a leaden sky will make men slow and dull, or that a bright one will make them active and shrewd, regardless of their ethnic character, we have come to realize that rivers and mountain barriers, plains and seas have profoundly affected the direction and extent of the movements of peoples. This has been peculiarly true in relation to Greece. To speak of Rome has been to call to mind the great roads which bound together her most distant possessions, but it is not so generally realized that, while Greece has almost no great paved ways—her smaller states making elaborate means of communication less of a necessity,—a number of very important lines of communication connected her various parts. Of necessity some of the most essential of these were water routes, just as in the Roman empire water routes were the necessary supplement of her road system in her connections with her possessions overseas.

The first impression presented by a map of Greece is its peninsular character. This holds true not only for Greece itself but for practically all the lands, not islands, inhabited by Greeks, and was recognized by Strabo who extended the classification to the whole of the civilized world. To start with Greece proper, the peninsula is divided into three fairly distinct geographical divisions in each of which there has been a certain homogeneity of historical development. The first division is the western slope of Greece north of the Corinthian Gulf from the central backbone of Pindus to the Ionian Sea, including the islands off the coast; the second is the eastern slope, distinguished from the last by its more open character, and including the island of Euboea; the third is the mountainous peninsula of the Peloponnesus, connected with the last by the isthmus of Corinth.

The first of these divisions is traversed by a succession of mountain ridges, broken in the middle by the Ambracian Gulf and elsewhere by two small plains. The northern part of this section, cut off from the south by the Gulf and a transverse mountain ridge, was known as Epirus. Tradition had it that the Greeks had come, in part, at least, from this country, but, in the fourth century, its inhabitants, as wild and rugged as its physical characteristics, were more closely related to the peoples further north, from whom they were separated by no marked physical boundary. At the opening of the third century the country attained a brief glory under Pyrrhus whose attempts at expansion on the other side of the en-

trance of the Adriatic brought him into contact with Rome. Across the central part of this country ran one, but the least used, of the roads which connect Greece with the continent of Europe. About midway on this road, near the point where it was crossed by a road connecting Thessaly with the western seacoast near the island of Coreyra, was the ancient sanctuary of Dodona. Farther south, where this road reached the shore of the Ambracian Gulf was the Corinthian colony of Ambracia, the natural outlet of the trade of the country and the only purely Greek town of Epirus. The road followed the gulf in a narrow pass between the mountain and the sea to Acarnania.

Acarnania and Aetolia occupied the southwestern corner of the northern peninsula. The boundary line between them, never firmly fixed, was the Achelous, the largest river of northern Greece. This country was less mountainous than Epirus, and in Aetolia was a considerable amount of marshy plain. Diagonally through this ran the route from the Ambracian Gulf to Naupactus at the outlet of the Corinthian Gulf. Both these states were backward and primitive. Aetolia alone made some appearance in Greek affairs when the rising power of Rome had begun to draw the center of influence westward. The establishment of the Aetolian league as a counterpoise to the Achaean on the opposite side of the strait was the outcome of their successful defense against Macedon and of these changing conditions. This defence is curiously paralleled in modern times by the resistance of the Greeks at Messolongion near the shore of Aetolia. The part of this western slope which abuts on the northern shore of the Corinthian Gulf was inhabited by the even less important western branch of the Locrians. Their territory extended as far east as the neighborhood of Delphi. Only one city, Naupactus, at the extreme west need be mentioned. It received its name "place of shipbuilding," as tradition said, from it having been the place where the Dorians who invaded the Peloponnese built their boats. It was the terminus of the road from the north and, moreover, commanded the entrance of the Corinthian Gulf. For this latter reason it was occupied by the Athenians in 469, when they made it their western naval base, and in 338 by Philip. Its occupation by the Venetians in the Middle Ages, and later by the Turks, the ruins of whose forts are the most evident remains in the vicinity, bears witness not only of its importance but of the continuous use of this great commercial highway.

From Naupactus northwest along the coast ran the western extension of the eastern sea routes which converged at Corinth. Our knowledge of the use of this highway for commerce is only gained by inference, as

such land-loving sailors as the Greeks would naturally hug the coast as far north as Corcyra in order to pass the intervening sea to Italy at its narrowest point. In naval matters we have more information. The earliest naval battle of the Greeks took place somewhere near this route as did that one which materially contributed to the Peloponnesian war, and both were in the interests of the trade which this route afforded. Two other important battles, Actium and Lepanto, not primarily connected with Greece, have taken place along it. Along this route lay the more important islands of Leukas and Corcyra, both occupied by Corinth, who thus assured her control of this route. The loss of Corcyra and its alliance with Athens was a most serious blow to her prestige. Somewhere near this road was the as yet unidentified Ithaca. Cephallenia and Zacynthus were too far to the south to have any great influence on or be influenced by it.

The eastern side of the northern peninsula was by far the most important section of ancient Greece. Its series of fertile plains, surrounded by mountains that protected them from the northern winds, its good harbors and a sea route, sheltered in the greater part of its length, made it the home of the most prosperous of the Greeks in continental Greece, and possessing the only road which connected the southern centers of population with Macedonia, it became the highway of the Persians and Macedonians who wished to invade Greece from the north and in later times the route of the Romans when attacking the powers of Macedonia and Asia.

As in the west, an intermediate country cut off by a natural barrier, protected the Greeks from the Macedonians. Thessaly, as this country was called, had the advantage over Epirus in being separated from Macedonia by a range of mountains which terminated at the east in the mass of Olympus, the Home of the Gods. This ridge was crossed by two passes, one of which reached the Thessalian plain at Larissa; the other, the one used by Xerxes, came in near the western end of the Vale of Tempe. A third road turned the end of Olympus by the shore and reached the plain through the Vale of Tempe itself, the narrow gorge of the Peneus which separates Olympus from Ossa and its southern continuation Pelion. The basin of the Peneus, which hugs the northern mountains throughout its length, made up Thessaly proper. It was divided physically by a narrow belt of hills running north and south, into two unequal plains. Politically it was divided into four districts, known as the tetrarchy: Hestiaeotis and Thessaliotis in the western plain, Pelasgiotis in the eastern plain and Achaia Phthiotis, the slopes of Othrys, between the modern gulfs of Volo and Lamia. To these were often joined Magnesia, the rocky peninsula of Ossa and Pelion, which gave its name to the two inland Greek colonies of Asia Minor, and the two small districts of Malis and Aeniana in the valley of the Sperchius, which were almost completely shut off from the rest of the country by the Othrys ridge. The fertility of the Thessalian plain was proverbial, and its horses were justly praised. The leading city was Larissa in

Pelasgiotis connected with the west by a road which ran up the left bank of the Peneus to the Zygos pass to Dodona and Corcyra. A rough mountain path connected the western plain with Ambracia in Epirus. Larissa was connected with the sea by a road which ran past Pherae, which aspired under Jason in the fourth century to the control of Greece, to Pagasae, whence another Jason was said to have set sail on that memorable expedition to Chalcis. Located at the inner corner of a land-locked bay, Pagasae was the natural port of Thessaly as is its modern representative Volo, and both have in turn given their name to the bay. Demetrius Poliorcetes recognized the importance of the situation and, collecting its inhabitants with those of other nearby places, settled them in a new foundation to which he gave the name of Demetrias. Later it was called one of the three keys of Greece, the other two being Chalcis and Corinth.

The main road ran south from Larissa past Cynocéphale, where the Romans broke the power of Philip V of Macedon, to Pharsalus, where Caesar defeated Pompey. On the ascent beyond Pharsalus near Dhomoko, the ancient Thaumaki, the Greeks tried vainly to stop the Turks in the invasion of 1897. The descent to Lamia is steep, but not difficult. Another road reached Lamia along the sea-shore from Pagasae, and both were used by Xerxes. At the head of the Malian Gulf, as at the Ambracian on the west, the connections between north and south are contracted into a narrow space between mountain and sea. This furnishes the key to whatever importance Malis had, outside of its being the traditional homes of Achilles and his Myrmidons. The way to the south was blocked by the mass of Oeta. At the southeastern angle of the plain where, in Greek times, the sea came close to the mountain, two ways led out, one along the shore, one through the mountain. This latter road followed up the gorge of the Asopus to Cytinium in that little fragment of the Dorians gathered around the headwaters of the Cephissus. It was in use only a few years ago, in spite of the fact that a splendidly-engineered carriage road climbs the ridge near by. From Doris it led over a low western spur of Parnassus to Delphi and Crisa, thus affording direct connection between this sanctuary and the north. It was also used as the route from the north to Aetolia and the western Peloponnese.

The main road avoided the main chain of Oeta by following the shore of the Malian Gulf through the four-mile pass of Thermopylae. Here, at three separate points, the shore approached the mountain, leaving only a narrow passage, two of them admitting only a wagon. At the western of these narrows were the hot springs which gave the name to the pass. At present, the sea has retired for a distance of several miles. Beyond Thermopylae on the narrow northern slope of Oeta, here called Cnemis, lay the territory of the Eastern Locrians, extending as far as the so-called mouth of the Cephissus. The road followed the shore past Thronium, their capital, to Atalanta and then turned westward and inland to Parapotamii on the Cephissus by an easy pass. Two shorter, but more difficult, roads left this at the eastern end of

Thermopylae and at Thronium respectively, and both joined at Elateia, on the northern edge of the plain of Phocis.

The hilly upper basin of the Cephissus and the slopes of Parnassus from Cnemis to the Corinthian Gulf were the land of Phocis. The best part of Phocis was the narrow upper plain of the Cephissus, separated from the Boeotian plain by the narrow valley of Parapotamii and controlled by the stronghold of Elateia. It was the second largest city of Phocis, and its seizure by Philip of Macedon announced to the Greeks that he was already within their door. High on a shelf on the southern slope of Parnassus was Delphi, with its sanctuary of Apollo, the religious center of the Greek world, and, according to local authority, its geographical center as well. It is a curious coincidence that Hemeroscopium, the most western settlement of the Greeks, and Phasis, their most eastern settlement before the time of Alexander, were nearly equidistant from it. This city which had been originally Phocian was settled by Dorians, and from that time became independent. The attempts of Phocis to get control of this sanctuary more than anything else brought Phocis into the general current of Greek affairs. Crisa, in the plain below, was at the junction of the road from north through Doris and the one along the coast from Naupactus and was, until its destruction in the Sacred War, the chief port of Phocis. Afterward the name was given to the harbor where the pilgrims landed. From it the road to central Phocis ran south of Parnassus to the Cleft Way, where Oedipus killed Laius, in the valley of the Platania, tributary of the Cephissus. Here it divided and the easy road went down the valley to Parapotomii and the direct road crossed the ridge of Thourion to Lebadea. By this road the Boeotians reached Boeotia from Epirus, and they and their neighbors went to Delphi.

From Parapotamii, the main road followed the Cephissus by Chaeronea and the Copaic plain to Thebes. The variable Copaic plain and the valley of the Asopus, separated by the low range of hills which forms the eastern extension of Helicon, made up the territory of Boeotia. As it occupied the whole extent of the peninsula from the Euripus to the Corinthian Gulf, it vied with Corinth in its strategic importance. Although there was a rough mountain tract running south from Atalanta in Locris to Chalcis and Oropus the only feasible one for military operations from both west and north ran along the western side of the Copaic plain between the lake and Helicon, so that in every Greek quarrel, as well as in those with outside powers, the opposing factions met somewhere in the Boeotian plain. In the north the plain of the Copaic lake, varying in size according to the state of its subterranean outlets, was exceedingly fertile and seems to have been the center of the pre-Greek civilization in the northern peninsula.

Its chief city, Orchomenus, high on the spur of Aenotium at the northwestern angle of the plain, maintained its supremacy far into the Greek period when the more centrally located Thebes was able to wrest it away. Thebes was admirably situated to

control the Boeotian confederacy. It lay midway between the two seas at the northern edge of the Asopus valley where the great road from the north divided, one branch going south to Corinth and the Peloponnese and the other going southeast to Athens. The Cadmea served all the necessary purposes of defense and its seizure by the Spartans was a recognition of its control of the route to the north. At the west the port of Siphac was its outlet into the Corinthian Gulf, and between the two lay Onchestus, with its sanctuary of Poseidon, the religious center of the Confederacy, and Thespieae, for long a rival of Thebes. But the most persistent rival of Thebes was Plataea, on the northern slope of Cithaeron, which, together with Parnes, formed the southern boundary of Boeotia. This city controlled the most travelled road to the Isthmus, and also an alternative route to Athens. As the only other road from the north to the Isthmus was a dangerous path around the western end of Cithaeron, used only in times of greatest danger, the alliance of Plataea with Athens effectually cut off Thebes from the south. It would also further aid Athens by assuring her control of the routes from Boeotia to Attica from the west as did Oropus on the east. To the east a road ran down the valley of the Asopus to Oropus on the sea, with a branch to Chalcis on Euboea, with which it was connected by a bridge, Oropus was not only the best port of Boeotia on the east, but the most convenient port of Athens for the north and became especially necessary to the Athenian administration when she carried out the colonization of the island of Euboea. Its connection with the northern route will be noted in the discussion of that island.

Although Cithaeron and Parnes formed a continuous boundary between Boeotia and the south, four roads led into Attica. Two at the west started from Plataea and Thebes respectively, and came out in the Attic plain at Eleusis, the Plataea route being the easier and the one followed by the modern diligence road. The direct road between the two cities, commanded by the fortress of Phyle, was wild and rough. The easiest route of all, and the one followed by the modern railway, started from Tanagra, where the well-known figurines were found, and, after being joined by the road from Oropus, turned the main bulk of Parnes and came out at Decellea, a few miles north of Athens. The road along the sea from Oropus to Marathon was not important.

Attica, the name given to the southeastern extension of the northern peninsula, falls roughly into three parts, first a plain, surrounded by Parnes, Pentelicus, and Hymettus, divided into two parts by the Aegaleos ridge west of Athens; the second, the rough and mountainous slopes of Cithaeron and Parnes, terminating at the east in the little plain of Marathon; and the third, the broken country east of Hymettus from Pentelicus to Cape Sunium, the northern part of which was the open country called the Mesogaia, while the south was the low mountain ridges containing the silver mines of Laurium. These divisions correspond roughly to the ancient Attic divisions of plain, mountain and shore. Just west of Hymet-

tus, on one of a number of rocky hills, the early settlers of Attica established their stronghold. It was at a safe distance from the sea, in fairly fertile surroundings and easily defensible. Moreover Attica was in a favorable position for the development of trade with the east as from the point of Sunium the islands led like giant stepping stones across the southern Aegean to Asia Minor and at slightly larger distances to the entrance of the Hellespont. When Athens began to take advantage of this position, the seaside suburbs of Phaleron, with its sandy shore, and later that of Piraeus, with its defended harbors of Zea, Munichia and the main harbor of Piraeus itself became the business center of Athens. This was one of the weaknesses of Athens that her political and residential center was so far from her business center, and had to be connected with the Acropolis, for purposes of protection, by the long walls. After the synoecism which brought the political life of Attica to Athens, the outlying places except those which commanded the routes leading into Attica ceased to be of importance. Prasiae on the east, from which the sacrificial embassies set sail for Delos, and Eleusis at the west, commanding the roads to Plataea and the Isthmus, with its sanctuary of Demeter, deserve mention. This last was connected with Athens by the Sacred Way, one of the very few paved roads in Greece, but the usual route of invading forces was around the northern end of Aegaleos ridge to the valley of the Cephissus. At the mouth of the gulf on which Eleusis lay was the island of Salamis, wrested, in the time of Solon, from Megaris to become an integral part of Attic territory. It was separated from both states by narrow straits, in the eastern of which Greece saved her independence in the Persian wars.

To the west of Attica lay Megaris, connected geographically with Attica, but ethnically with Corinth. Its one city of Megara lay close to Nisaea, its port on the Saronic Gulf, on the road from Athens to the Isthmus. It was connected by a fairly good road with its own port, Pagae, on the Corinthian Gulf. After the first rise to notice by its occupation of Byzantium, on the Bosphorus, and Heraclea, on the Pontus, which belied the reputation of its citizens for stupidity, its brief period of glory was nipped by the rising power of Athens. Megaris formed for Athens the necessary outlet to the Corinthian Gulf, and when Megarian commerce declined, Athens was the one market of Megara. With Megara in her possession, Athens had likewise complete control of the land routes from the Peloponnese north and held the best line of defense against Corinth and Sparta, for the western boundary of Megaris, Mt. Geranea, was difficult to cross. At the eastern end was the Kake Skala (evil stairs), a narrow path along the Scironian rocks, so called because the robber Sciron used to kick his victims into the sea until he himself succumbed to the same fate. Around the western end ran an equally difficult road, and through the center of the range ran the rough pass of Megaloderoni. It is, therefore, the real boundary between the northern peninsula and the

Peloponnese and first real line of defense south of Thermopylae.

Closely connected with this northern peninsula and physically a continuation of Magnesia, the island of Euboea was all the more an integral part of the north as it furnished what was practically an inland water communication along the whole western coast from Attica to Thessaly. This was so narrow at Chalcis that it was crossed by a bridge, thus making it a peninsula. This inland route was an early favorite of the Greeks, in spite of the powerful currents which cause modern steamers even much delay, and along it were founded most of the important cities of the island. Carystus at the south was the port for the islands and Histiaea at the north was closely connected with Thessaly. Chalcis and Eretria, near the center, took the leading part in the affairs of the island. The position of Chalcis, at the narrowest part of the Euripus, made it one of the keys of Greece, at least to a northern power. It early took advantage of its position and began placing colonies along this northern route, particularly at the northern end of the Aegean sea, where the three-pronged peninsula came to be called the Chalcidice, though as a matter of fact many of the colonies there were established by Eretria and even Corinth. That the Chalcidians were fully alive to the advantages of their position is shown by their occupation of Rhegion and Zancle-Messenia so as to control the route up the western coast of Italy.

In this same direction they tapped another northern route at Cumae near the modern Naples and the farthest outpost of the Greeks toward the Romans.

The colonists of this place came in part from the little Boeotian territory of Graea on the other side of the Euripus and by a similar mischance as that which named the Achaeans in Asia Aeolians, these colonists furnished to their Italian neighbors a name for the whole and the term Graeci was gradually extended to include all the Hellenes. Eretria was also a colonizer either in conjunction with or in the neighborhood of those of Chalcis, and both were joined by the other Euboic cities. Their sympathies and interests lay with Athens until after the Persian wars, when the growth of Athenian power began to encroach upon Euboic preserves. The control of the Hellespont was not seriously affected by the attitude of Euboea, but when Athens attempted to establish herself at the mouth of the Strymon in order to control the main land route from the central part of the Balkan peninsula and the valley of the Danube, Euboea was in the way.

Euboea had to submit and become an Athenian colony, thus holding this route as the Thracian Chersonese held her route to the Black Sea.

The third division of continental Greece evidently got its name, Pelop's island, from being colonized by sea, tradition had it from Aetolia. In it were seven states of different sizes, six of which were on the shore line, the other, Arcadia, was inland and from its isolation and conservatism drew most of its fame.

The south and east of the peninsula was Dorian,

the north and west were Aetolian. It lay at one side of the great east-west road which skirted its northern border across the isthmus, as the route around the southern extremity was not only longer but dangerous.

The proverb ran, "When you have rounded Malea, forget your home." Within the peninsula three roads were the main lines of communication. The first was the southern continuation of the main route from the north by Corinth and Argos to Sparta and Gythium.

The second was the continuation of the western land route which ended at Naupactus from Rhium through Elis, Olympia and Megalopolis to Sparta. The third road connected Corinth and Sparta by Mantinea and Tegea, thus avoiding Argos which was often at odds with Sparta. Another road skirted the shore of the Corinthian Gulf from Corinth to Rhium.

Corinth held the most important strategic position in Greece for both peace and war. Almost under her walls the isthmus narrowed to about four miles and across it ran the major part of the east-west traffic.

Before the rise of Athens its position made it the most important commercial city of Greece, but when Athens began to develop her trade with east and north her more favorable position for this had its effect upon Corinthian trade and prestige. This was increased when Athens began to have western ambitions and Corinth was forced to combine with Sparta in order to maintain the balance of power and Sparta was a willing ally, as it furnished her with a sure outlet to the north. Throughout the period of independent Greek history the friendship of Corinth weighed heavily in Greek affairs, but when the Roman knights began to invade the eastern commercial world, Corinth stood in the way and was destroyed. It was located a couple of miles south of Lechaum, her port on the gulf, at the foot of a steep hill crowned by an almost impregnable fortress. Seven miles to the east was Cenchræa on the Saronic Gulf, whence Paul embarked, and north of it, at the end of the wall, which from very early times had protected the peninsula, was the Isthmian sanctuary. Near this, at the narrowest part of the isthmus, a modern canal, in fulfilment of ancient hopes, has replaced the Diolkos by which the Greeks transported their ships overland from one gulf to the other. A few miles west of Corinth lay Sicyon, which shared some of the advantages of the former city and attained a considerable cultural development in spite of the homely name of "cucumber town." Its brief period of glory after its re-establishment in 303, was largely reflected from its townsman, Aratus, who was for long the leading figure in the Achaean league.

South from Corinth ran the main road to the plain of Argos, following the same route as the modern carriage road and railroad, and leaving on the west, Nemea with its Zeus sanctuary near the place where the road to Sparta via Mantinea branched off. The small and hardly fertile plain of horse-rearing Argos had a significance out of all proportion to its size. Argos itself on the western side of the plain, with its Larisa or citadel, on the east "golden" Mycenæ at the innermost angle, the great sanctuary of Hera, and near the sea, wall girt Tiryns bore evidence of its

prosperity in pre-Greek as well as Hellenic times. In the middle ages and more modern times, the rocky citadel of Nauplia, once the common harbor of the plain, has become the leading center. Argos was by its position and influence, the natural foe of Sparta both from its control of the Spartan communications with the north and from the prominent place in Peloponnesian affairs which its early associations had given it. The boundary line between it and Sparta was, by nature, the ridge which ended in Malea, but the Spartans often crossed it and held the southern extension of Argos. Argos founded Mantinea in order to control Sparta's other road to the north. On the east, the rocky peninsula of Acte and its famous "cure" of Epidaurus belonged to Argos.

Epidaurus served as the eastern port of Argos and colonized the neighboring island of Aegina, which became, in the sixth century after its separation from the mother city, a center of international trade with commercial connections in Egypt, the Black Sea and Umbria, and its weights and measures became standard for Greece until the Roman period. With the rise of Athens they fell victims of Athenian jealousy and received a treatment similar to that which Carthage and Corinth suffered at the hands of Rome.

From Argos to Sparta the road ran south along the Argolic Gulf past Lerna, where Hercules slew the Hydra, turned inland by Thyrea, so often in dispute between the two cities, crossed the ridge and descended slowly by Sellasia, where the Spartan power was broken in 221, to the Lacedaemonian plain. Laconia, or "Hollow" Lacedaemon, was the valley of the Eurotas between Parnon and Taygetus. The un-walled city of Sparta, lacking a strong citadel such as was possessed by most Greek cities, lay near the head of this broken plain about thirty miles from the sea. The only easy natural approach from the remainder of the Peloponnesus was from Megalopolis and Arcadia on the northwest, and this road was used as far as the boundary of Arcadia in marching heavy troops to the north. Amyclæ, shown by tradition and remains to have been an early capital of the country, lay near the road to Gythium, Sparta's seaport with its artificial harbor. These were the only other places in Laconia proper. At the entrance of the Laconic Gulf lay the rocky island of Cythera, once a Phœnician settlement with shell fisheries, which was seized by the Athenians at the outbreak of the Peloponnesian war as a port of call and a guard over Sparta. Taenarum, the southern extension of Taygetus, became in Hellenistic and Roman times a mart for mercenaries, and in the medieval and modern times, under the name of Maina, has been the home of a people who claimed to be descendants of the Spartans and have borne it out in their successful struggle to maintain their independence.

West of Sparta, on the opposite side of Taygetus, lay Messenia with its capital on the summit of Mt. Ithome. Its luxuriant vegetation still bears evidence of the name Macaria—the Blessed—given by the Greeks to the valley of the Pamisus. This same fertility drew the attention of Sparta, and resulted in their occupation of the country and the withdrawal

of many of the Messenians to found a new city on the coast of Sicily. The city was restored again at the foot of Ithome by Epaminondas in consequence of his scheme to shut Sparta in. On its western coast was the one natural harbor on the western shore of the Peloponnese which was occupied by the Athenians as a base for naval operations in that quarter. Pylos, under the modern name of Navarino, was the scene of a curious incident of modern diplomacy in the Greek war for independence.

North of Messenia on the west coast lay Elis. The narrow strip of coast line south of the Alpheus, called Triphylia, barely separated Arcadia from the sea and later fell a victim to the Arcadian league. Pisatis, on both banks of the Alpheus, took its name from Pisa which the Achaeans had founded in this country of rolling hills. On the north bank of the Alpheus near the city, at the point where the tributary Cladeus comes in lay a shrine of Zeus. This sanctuary, which lay on the road leading from the coast to Sparta, had originally been one of Pelop's and was under the joint control of the Aetolians of Elis and the Pisan Achaeans; but the latter were forced out at the opening of the sixth century and the Eleans gained complete control of this greatest of Peloponnesian sanctuaries, whose games attracted contestants from the whole Greek world. The third section of Elis called Coele—the Hollow—and the richest, comprised the valley of the Peneius. Its famous variety of flax has now been replaced by currants. Near the center of this, a synoecism of 471 established the wallless city of Elis, the firm ally of Sparta and the foe of the later Arcadian league.

The coast from Elis to Sicyon was held by the Achaeans. Its position at the entrance of the Corinthian Gulf brought an alliance with Athens to its backward cities. During the third century, the league of its twelve cities played quite a role in the declining affairs of Greece when the approach of Rome was shifting the center of things westward. Patrae, at the west, revived after a decay by Augustus as a Roman colony, has become the most important city of Greece proper, outside of Athens.

The last portion of the peninsula to be described is the upper basin of the Alpheus. Arcadia was surrounded on all sides by mountain ridges pierced by few good passes, and, as it had few plains and those small, it cut small figure in Greek politics outside of its connection with more important states. Tegea, Mantinea and Megalopolis were its only large cities. The remainder of the country was thinly populated, and was the abode of many wonders, including the falls of the Styx and the Stymphalian lake. Tegea connected with Argos, Sparta and Megalopolis, was brought into conflict with Sparta by reason of its position and gradually lost its independence. It made a virtue of necessity and threw in its lot with Sparta, and only at the battle of Mantinea was it seriously against it. Mantinea, twenty miles to the north, bore much the same relation to Argos, to whom it owed its origin, and with whom it was connected by two fairly good roads, one of which was the lowest pass between the east and Arcadia. This was the

cause of Mantinea's importance. Under the walls of this town Epaminondas won his last victory and his death. To Epaminondas the other Arcadian town of Megalopolis owes its very existence, as a part of his general scheme of curtailment of the power of Sparta by shutting off her communications with the remainder of the peninsula. Its position made Sparta its inveterate enemy and in 222 she finally accomplished its destruction. Although the power of Sparta was broken at Sellasia in the following year, Megalopolis never regained her former position. By that time, the rising power of Rome had begun to make only those routes in Greece which directly contributed to the furthering of communication between the Italian peninsula and Asia the important ones.

It is outside the bounds of this paper to deal with the Greek islands and the lands beyond the sea. A few statements in relation to them will, however, not be out of place. Three great trade routes centered at Corinth: from the east and the Hellespont, from Asia Minor, and from Egypt and Syria. Along all of these the Greeks established themselves wherever local conditions permitted, and wherever these main routes were joined by other routes or were commanded by physical barriers the Greek colonies which occupied these sites played a prominent role in the history of the vicinity, if not in that of Greece itself. To the northeast, the half civilized tribes around the Pontus and Propontis permitted the occupation of every trading port of any value. Trapezus commanded the overland route from Persia and Armenia; Phasis, that from the valley of the Caspian; Tanais and the ports at the mouth of the Cimmerian Bosphorus the overland route from Central Asia, and Olbia at the mouth of the Dneiper the route from north Russia. In the Aegean, which was really a Greek lake, the colony of Amphipolis was established by Athens to reach the trade from the central Balkan peninsula and the middle Danube. On the east of the Aegean Phocaea and Miletus respectively commanded the two important roads to the central plateau of Asia Minor. Rhodes at the southeastern angle of Asia Minor was the focus of the routes from Egypt and Syria to the Isthmus and to the north. When the center of Hellenic affairs was shifted in the Hellenistic period toward the east, it rose rapidly to the fame which Athens lost, and retained it until the jealousy of the Roman knights fostered the island of Delos. This religious center of the Aegean world was close to the main route from Miletus to the west, and when it became the main road from Asia Minor to Rome, the immunities which the sanctuary furnished contributed to making it as important as it had been in the days when it was the center of the Delian League.

At the eastern end of the Mediterranean, Greeks struggled with the Phoenicians for the control of Cyprus, the focus of the routes in this region, in the same manner as they fought the Carthaginians in the west for the control of Sicily. On the lower waters of the Nile, the colony of Naucratis sought for the trade of Egypt and in Syrene they grasped one of the routes to the interior of Africa, the poorest of them, for the same reason as a modern nation has attempted

the same task. In the west, southern Italy received the name of Great Greece on account of its wealth and prosperity. At the extreme west, Marseilles held the trade from the Rhone Valley and so thoroughly spread Greek culture in "The Province" that it was a living language when the Roman control was breaking before the German barbarians.

In making use of the idea of routes in the development of Greek historical geography, it is to be remembered that the uses of trade and strategy were after all the least important of those for which a road is significant. Backward and forward over these roads travelled the trader himself, a person quite apart from his wares and business, the common soldier, the wandering minstrel, the adventurer and even the plain "hobo" of the ancient world carrying the ideas of one locality to another, transmitting the knowledge of events. In the Greek world this was particularly increased by the periodical games and contests held at the great sanctuaries, where the physical and intellectual prodigies of the Greek world performed their respective parts. This made these roads of more than ordinary importance in the development of Greek life and ideas.

At the close of a paper of this sort and length on the historical geography of Greece, the reader is left with a seeming multiplicity of details and complex situations out of all proportion to the size of the Greek territory and the general outlines of Greek history. The attempt has been made to show first of all how much and how varied were the peoples and localities which were crowded into the peninsula of Greece, a situation hardly paralleled in any territory of equal extent in the world. In the second place, it shows how intimately connected the various parts of the Greek world were, regardless of the differences of race, temperament, and occupation. Finally, I hope that it has laid the foundation for a larger appreciation of the influence of the geographical features of Greece upon its development. In this only a very small beginning has been made which can be indefinitely extended with the aid of a very few works, of which the most valuable are Pausanias' famous old guide book in the translation of Frazer with its exhaustive notes, and its modern successor, Baedeker's Handbook of Greece. These two will furnish a vividness to the historical geography of Greece which no mere compendium can hope to rival. Of further works, Strabo's Geography, Herodotus and Thucydides furnish most of the information, and Mahaffy's delightful "Rambles in Greece," an excellent commentary. The views published by Underwood are perhaps the best set of photographs generally available and last of all, as a supplement to the excellent modern map in the Baedeker, any one of a number of historical atlases will give the student a ground plan on which to build an appreciation of Greek history in its geographic aspects.

Announcement is made by Ainsworth and Co., of Chicago, of the early publication of a new, completely rewritten edition of Professor Fred Morrow Fling's "Outline of Historical Method." It is expected that the work will be ready in January, 1914.

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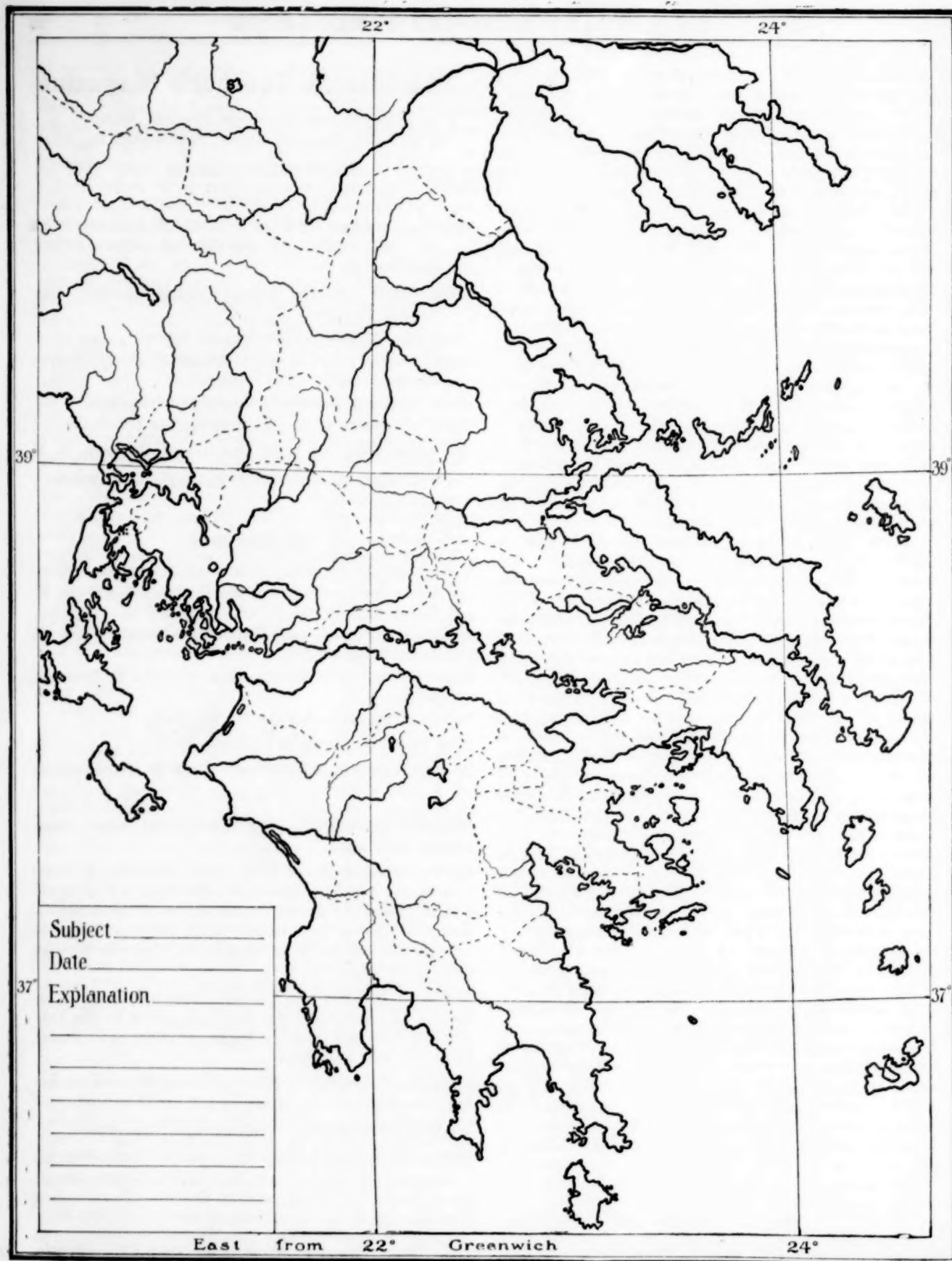
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The Harvard Library has received from Mr. Alfred Bowditch, 74, of Boston, a copy of John Eliot's Indian Grammar, one of the very rarest of Americana. The book was printed in Cambridge, by Marmaduke Johnson, in 1666. Copies are to be found in the John Carter Brown Library, Providence, and in the Lenox Library, New York City, but not in any of the Massachusetts libraries.



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NOTE.—The dotted lines represent approximate boundaries of states; but they cannot be accepted as exact demarcations, since the boundaries varied greatly from time to time.

Outline of European History

Based on the Recommendations of the Committee of Five

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., AND ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D.

VIII. The Ascendancy of Napoleon III and the Nationalist Wars, 1848-1870

THE PRÉÉMINENCE OF FRANCE.

France may be regarded as the dominant state in European politics in the period from 1848 to 1870. The period as a whole calls to mind in many of its features that which opened with the downfall of the Directory and ended with the collapse of the Napoleonic régime. Immediately upon attaining control of France, Louis Napoleon showed himself such an ardent devotee of the ideals of his great relative that he enthusiastically set himself to the task of reviving the glories of the First Empire; and with this end in view he followed to the best of his knowledge and ability the path which had been marked out for him by his great predecessor. As early as 1849 he had written, "The name Napoleon is a complete program in itself; it stands for order, authority, religion, the welfare of the people within; without, for national dignity." It was not many years before the eyes of all Europe, and even of distant America, were directed towards France and its new leader, the Emperor Napoleon III. It was largely as the result of his ambitions and policies that the continent was plunged into the series of struggles which brought with them the important territorial and nationalistic changes which mark these two decades.

THE AIMS OF NAPOLEON III.

So far as France herself was concerned, he sought to convince the nation of the essential correctness of the views and acts of his great model. He sought to create the impression that this new empire which he had brought into existence was the true exponent of democracy, possibly hoping by this policy to profit by the republican strivings of 1848. It cannot be denied that he did much to further the material interests of his subjects at a time when attention to material interests was demanded, and that he thereby prepared the way for better conditions in the immediate future. In his foreign policy, however, in which he sought to adhere to the principle of nationality, he was so vacillating and uncertain and displayed at times such an utter disregard of the advice of his ministers and counselors that France profited but little from his numerous undertakings. When the collapse finally came, about all that a Frenchman could say was that he had preserved his honor; all else had been lost. The internal development of France falls into three well-defined periods or epochs in consequence of these ambitious strivings of Napoleon III to retain his supremacy at home and at the same time play a leading rôle abroad. In fact the success or failure of a policy in the one field was accompanied by a corresponding forward or retrograde movement in the other. These epochs may be

designated as the autocratic empire, from 1852 to 1860; the liberal empire, from 1860 to 1869; and the parliamentary empire, from September, 1869, to September, 1870.

Two great figures profited by the ambitious designs of "the nephew of his uncle,"—Cavour and Bismarck. As the result of their labors and those of their co-workers two new nationalities emerged, Italy and Germany. A third state, Austria, likewise profited in no small degree by the readjustment of territorial interests, but was still afflicted by the curse of conflicting creeds and races.

THE FORCES AT WORK IN THE PERIOD.

Down to 1870 it is possible to trace clearly the operation of the two great forces of nationality and industrialism. France was just beginning to enjoy the fruits of the industrial revolution and the interests of the working classes and the material interests of the nation as a whole were more generally recognized and promoted by those in authority. Germany was already linked together by an economic tie—the Zollverein. The German people were welded together so successfully through the efforts of Bismarck that they were placed not only in a position of competition, but even of leadership in the race for industrial supremacy. Both the Italian and German stories of unification have much to tell us of the workings of economic tendencies and the recognition of democratic strivings. Although the fife and the drum are much in evidence throughout the period, and the Second Empire owed its support in no small measure to the army, the best asset of the statesmen who shaped these nations to their will was the nationalistic and democratic aspirations of the people themselves.

The career of Napoleon III is the unifying element throughout the period and his participation in the wars which marked the gradual realization of the ambitions of Germans and Italians should be constantly kept to the fore. On the other hand the period furnishes excellent illustrations of the power of nationality, which, whenever and wherever disregarded, left in its wake a legacy of trouble to the monarchs and statesmen concerned. No better illustration of this could be found than the interference of Napoleon III in Mexico. It has been thought advisable not to lay too great stress upon the details of the wars by attempting a minute analysis of each struggle. Any of the standard text-books will furnish abundance of material for this purpose. It is rather the personal element so prominent in this epoch which calls for detailed presentation. The stories of German and Italian unity may profitably be contrasted and the Italian and German phases of each of these struggles

emphasized. These great contests often possessed a dual significance as may be illustrated by the Seven Weeks' War and the war between France and Germany in 1870. In the former struggle the way was prepared at one and the same time for the union of the States of Northern Germany, and the rounding out of the Italian kingdom on the north by the addition of Venetia. The struggle between France and Germany in 1870 not only consolidated the States of Northern and Southern Germany, but joined the severed portions of Italy by forcing the withdrawal of the French troops from the city of Rome on the eve of the contest.

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 1. Napoleon III and the Austro-Sardinian War, 1859.
 2. The annexations in the North.
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 1. The failure of 1848 and its lessons.
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 - a. The economic link—the Zollverein.
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 1. The position of Austria in Germany.
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 1. Interest of Napoleon III in Germany.
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IV. The creation of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy.

1. Effects of 1848 upon Austria.
2. The Ausgleich, 1867.
3. The problem of nationality.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

The unification of Italy and of Germany was discussed at some length in *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* for May and June, 1910. A brief list of helpful books was suggested in this connection. Probably the best general treatment of the entire period in brief compass is that of Seignobos in his "Europe Since 1814" (Chapter xxvii). The secondary teacher will also find the following books stimulating and helpful: Hazen, "Europe Since 1815," Chapters ix-xiv, xvi-xvii; Judson, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," pp. 141-174; Robinson and Beard, "Development of Modern Europe," Vol. II, Chapters xix, xxi-xxii; Seignobos, "Contemporary Civilization," Chapters xi-xii. Any of these books can be used to advantage by the student for outside reading. The little book by Marriott on the "Remaking of Modern Europe," 1789 to 1878 (Chapters xvi-xx), in the Six Ages of European Histories Series, and Jane's "From Metternich to Bismarck: a Text-book of European History, 1815-1878" (Chapters vii-ix), can also be recommended for this purpose. There are also the larger and more detailed works of Mueller, "History of Recent Times," Secs. 15, 18-19, 21-23, 25; Phillips, "Modern Europe, 1815-1899," Chapters xiv-xviii; Andrews, "Development of Modern Europe," Vol. II, Chapters i-vii; Fyffe, "Modern Europe," Vol. III, Chapters ii-vii; Sears, "Political Growth in the Nineteenth Century," Part I, Chapters iii, v; Part II, Chapter i; Part III, Chapter i; Murdock, "Reconstruction of Europe," and the "Cambridge Modern History," Vol. xi, Chapters x-xi, xiv-xvii, xix, xxi. These are all more useful in the hands of the teacher than of the student. The recent collection of biographical sketches by A. D. White, entitled "Seven Great Statesmen," contains biographies of Cavour and Bismarck.

Special histories covering portions of the period should not be overlooked. Among the best of these are, for Germany, Henderson, "Short History of Germany," Vol. II, Chapters viii-x, and the two biographies of Bismarck, the one by Headlam in the Heroes of the Nations Series, and Bismarck, "The Man and Statesman," his autobiography, in two volumes, translated by A. J. Butler. For Italy mention should be made of Cesaresco, "Liberation of Italy"; Marriott, "Makers of Modern Italy"; Bolton King, "History of Italian Unity, 1814-1871" (2 vols.), and, though somewhat restricted as to the field covered, Bolton King, "Mazzini and Trevelyan, Garibaldi and His Thousand." Fisher's lectures on Bonapartism should be read by every teacher before taking up this period with the class, particularly Lectures V and VI. These convey an excellent idea of the hold of Napoleon Bonaparte both upon his contemporaries and the generations who came after him.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

TEXAS ASSOCIATION.

The history teachers of the State of Texas met at Dallas, November 28, 1913, in their second annual meeting for discussion of high school history teaching. The program was confined to two subjects, "The Teaching of Geography in History Courses" and "The Use of Supplementary Readings in History Courses."

Mr. Gutsch, of the University of Texas, read a paper upon "What Geographical Information The Course in History Should Include." He emphasized the importance of physiography in introductory history courses and the use of the map in studying treaties and diplomatic relations as well as military campaigns and discoveries, explorations and expansion.

Mr. G. F. Urbantke, of Brenham, presented a paper on "The Purposes of Collateral Reading" and Mr. Genheimer of Waco suggested several methods by which collateral reading could be made more effective.

Dr. E. C. Barker, of the University of Texas, was elected chairman for the ensuing year.

The complete program was as follows:

HISTORY SECTION.

(2 p.m., Friday, November 28, 1913.)

Chas. W. Ramsdell, University of Texas, Chairman. Jos. A. Hill, North West Texas Normal, Vice-Chairman. Miss Florence Holladay, Austin, Secretary-Treasurer.

General Theme: Efficiency in the Teaching of History.

I. The Use of Geography in the Teaching of History.

1. What sort of Geographical Information Should the Course in History Include? Mr. Milton R. Gutsch, University of Texas.
2. How Best to Teach Historical Geography. Miss S. Pappenhagen, Dallas High School.

II. The Use of Collateral Reading in the High School Course.

1. What Should be the Purpose of the Collateral Reading? G. F. Urbantke, Austin.
2. How to Get the Best Results from Collateral Reading. Miss Faye L. Stewart, Fort Worth High School.

General Discussion: Led by E. T. Genheimer, Waco, Texas.

III. Report of the Permanent Committee on Conditions in History Teaching in Texas. Thomas Fletcher, University of Texas.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland held a meeting at the State Normal College, Albany, New York, on Saturday, November 29. The occasion for the meeting was the session of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, which was held in Albany on Friday and Saturday, November 28 and 29.

The meeting was well attended and resulted in the organization of a local conference of teachers of history in Albany and vicinity. At the business meeting an amendment to the Constitution was adopted providing that all the ex-presidents of the Association should be entitled to membership upon the Council and that representation should be given on the Council to the local conferences, of which five now exist in the Middle States and Maryland. The reports of Committees showed the activities of the Association in various lines. Progress was reported by the

committees on the teaching of geography, on the teaching of economics, and on the training of history teachers.

The principal work of the session was the discussion of "How Should Schools and Colleges Train For Citizenship?" Papers were presented by Dr. James Lynn Barnard, of the School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; Principal James Sullivan, of the Boys' High School, Brooklyn, New York; and Professor Charles A. Beard, of Columbia University, New York City. The discussion was participated in by Miss Jessie C. Evans, of the William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia; Mr. Edgar W. Ames, of the High School of Troy, New York; Mr. Arthur W. Dunn, of the National Municipal League, New York City; Dr. George D. Leutscher, of the Jamaica High School, New York; Dr. Adna W. Risley, State Normal College, Albany, New York; and Principal W. A. Wetzel, of the High School of Trenton, New Jersey.

After the discussion, the following resolutions respecting the teaching of civics were adopted:—

In Elementary and Secondary Schools:—

1. The order of teaching should be from the functions to the machinery of government with special emphasis on function rather than machinery.
2. The work should be based on the pupils' experience and immediate surroundings.
3. There should be a continual connection of civics with current events, and the student should be made to form the habit of keeping up with the news.
4. The keynote of the course should be the obligation of the citizen to serve the community.
5. Means should be found for the actual participation of the students in civic activities. This means more than the usual visits to courts and public buildings. They should *do* something to help, either as individuals or through civic associations.
6. Civic training should be secured through the organization and discipline of the school. If the organization is such as to develop in the pupils personal responsibility, initiative, a social conscience, and high ideals of conduct, the best civic lesson has been learned.
7. Civics should be given a place of its own separate from History.
8. This association should take steps to secure separate examinations for United States History and Civics and examination questions in Civics which call for something besides a knowledge of the machinery of government.

In Colleges:—

9. Actual research in political science should be undertaken.
10. The work should include studies in comparative politics.
11. History and economics should be co-ordinated with politics.
12. Participation in public activities should be more extended and on a higher plane. "Students should join a party and work with it, join a civic association of some kind, keep in touch with live intellectual interests."
13. A slogan should be adopted and used in educational and civic conferences: "CITIZENSHIP FIRST."

MISSOURI ASSOCIATION.

REPORT OF MEETING AT ST. LOUIS, NOVEMBER 7, 1913.

On account of a misunderstanding, only one session of the annual meeting was held. This meeting was attended by between 125 and 150, and the program was carried out as advertised. The society's president, Professor W. J. Shepard,

of the University of Missouri, opened the program with an informal discussion on "The Teaching of American History and Government in the High School." A summary of this discussion will be published in the annual report of the State Teachers' Association. Mr. Shepard's remarks were listened to with close attention. They were suggestive of the better things now being done and to be done in the teaching of the subjects mentioned. In the free-for-all remarks that followed, Professor E. L. Hendricks, of the State Normal School at Warrensburg, led off. He wished: (1) the discussion, to be one of actual experiences, (2) to show how the teaching of the history and government of the United States might be related. Further remarks followed somewhat along the same line. Superintendent Seaton, of Macon, said that he was trying hard to wipe out prejudices through the teaching of the two subjects together. He cited the case of a boy who hated Abraham Lincoln to the extent that he could not speak of him without anger. This caused him to have the boy write a paper on Mr. Lincoln. He was asked to gather all the information he could from whatever sources. The boy came out of his struggles with much respect for Mr. Lincoln. Mr. Mills, of East St. Louis High School, emphasized the idea of joining what we are learning to what we know. He believed in a very close observation of the government of the community. Professor N. M. Trenholme, of the University of Missouri, believed that we too often did not teach actual conditions, but ideal conditions, and that we were too bookish. Professor McClure of the State Normal School at Warrensburg, said he got much benefit from the experiences others related and urged more to tell their story. Mr. Green, of the Potosi High School, told how he often sent his boys and girls to have interviews with the various county officials. He said it was a fact that pupils had no trouble remembering what they got from these interviews. Professor Douglass, of the State Normal School at Cape Girardeau, said we did not evaluate our facts well enough; that we should both study the conditions nearest us and as they actually are. Superintendent Kirk, of Charleston, wished to get opinions on whether to combine the history and government in teaching them. Superintendent Lee, of Sikeston, believed better results obtained by combining the two, though he thought as a rule the interest in the history was greater than in the government. He found a good way to balance the two up was to take advantage of studying the operations of government in the county where he was living.

Dr. Heinrich H. Maurer, of the University of Missouri, then read a paper on "The Peculiar Function of History Study in the High School in Developing Character and Citizenship." A summary of this paper will also be given in the report of the State Teachers' Association. Professor Roland G. Usher, of Washington University, discussed this paper. His discussion implied that he believed Dr. Maurer's ideas could be better applied to the German and French schools than to ours.

A short business meeting was then held. Professor Trenholme made a tentative report for the committee on the teaching of history in the elementary schools of Missouri. A questionnaire is now prepared, and will be sent out through the State Superintendent's office. The secretary reported that the society was composed now of about sixty members in good standing, and that its financial affairs were in satisfactory condition. Officers for the coming year were then chosen. They are as follows:

President, R. S. Douglass, State Normal School, Cape Girardeau; vice-president, Superintendent G. W. Kirk, Charleston; secretary-treasurer, Eugene Fair, State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.

The society will hold its next annual meeting at St. Joseph about the middle of November, 1914.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

MARY W. WILLIAMS, M.A., EDITOR.

In the "American Magazine" for November, Ray Stannard Baker discusses "The Glory of Panama," and points out "how the Big Ditch, dug on honor, is a great example of the new idealism in public service."

"Genoa the Superb," by Joseph Francis Wickham ("Catholic World," November) combines a description of the Genoa of the present with considerable valuable information regarding her past history.

"The Sewanee Review" for October contains the first of a series of articles by A. R. H. Ranson, entitled "Reminiscences of the Civil War by a Confederate Staff Officer." The first paper treats of plantation life in Virginia before the War, and of John Brown's raid.

"Harper's Magazine" for November contains the first installment of a series of letters by Madame de Hegernmann-Lindencrone, entitled "A Diplomat's Wife in Washington, 1875-1878." The letters are written in a racy style and give the writer's personal impressions of many famous persons of the period.

A long paper by A. Cans entitled "The Political Role of the Assembly of the Clergy during the Period of the Fronde, 1650-1651," appears in "Revue Historique" for September-October. In the opinion of the author, the clergy played a very important part in the service of the regent by disorganizing the plans of the States-General for gaining control of the French government during the minority of Louis XIV.

The "English Review" for November contains several "Letters on Napoleon's Last Days," contributed by L. M. Shortt, written by his grandfather, Dr. Thomas Shortt, principal medical officer on St. Helena during the last months of Napoleon's life, and his wife, Henrietta Shortt. The letters of Mrs. Shortt, in particular, convey a very vivid impression of the personality of Napoleon.

"October 14, 1066," the date of the battle of Hastings, is the title of an article in "The Nineteenth Century and After," for October, by Harold F. Wyatt. The writer regards the Norman conquest as a catastrophe to England, and also as a warning. The character of the warning is indicated by the significant concluding sentence: "After the conquest of England by Germany how many might the years be ere free institutions rose again?"

The "National Geographic Magazine" for November is wholly devoted to one article—"The Non-Christian Peoples of the Philippine Islands," by Dean C. Worcester, secretary of the interior of the islands, 1901-1913. The paper is largely descriptive of the instruction, particularly along industrial lines, which these people are receiving under American direction. The student of anthropology will take special interest in the thirty-two pages of colored illustrations, which reveal their physical characteristics.

"Fifty Years of Anthropology," by Professor Ernst Haeckel, ("North American Review," November) calls attention to the astonishing progress made by the half-century-old science of anthropology. The writer concludes: "The 'question of questions'—the fundamental question of 'Man's Place in Nature' has been happily solved in our day. The solid ground has fallen away from the feet of that superstition which sets up man as a being superior to Nature, and which, unfortunately, still holds so great a part of mankind under its ban."

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

ADAMS, JOHN QUINCY: Writings Of. Edited by W. C. Ford. New York: Macmillan Co., 1913. Vol III: Pp. xxvi+531. Price, \$3.50.

This volume bristles with interest. Adams has now arrived at his intellectual maturity, and although he has not yet fully mastered his particular irony of style, his letters have all the life and vigor which we associate with his later work. Stationed at The Hague during about half the period, he was in touch with the whole intellectual and political life of Europe. Later, at Berlin, he was somewhat out of the center of affairs, but in a country whose political career was of great importance. It is natural that the greatest interest of the volume lies in the reaction of the events of the time upon his virile and trained mind. In general, whereas in the first volume it was the iniquities of England which formed the dominating note, in this case it is the machinations of the French Directory. In both cases, however, the sturdy Americanism of the man is the most conspicuous feature, and one is convinced that his sympathies were touched only by his own country, while his antipathies were excited first by one and then another of the foreign nations. The particular business upon which he was concerned, during the last half of the period, was the renewal of treaties with Sweden and Prussia. The business was not extremely important, and is of interest chiefly in bringing him into some conflict with the Secretary of State, Timothy Pickens, over the question of abandoning the traditional American position of "free ships make free goods." One feels, however, throughout the volume, that one is brought into direct contact with the course of history through Adams' relationship with the President. The practical identity of the policy which the son recommends, with that which the father carries out, was probably at the bottom based upon a substantial identity of mental outlook. One cannot but feel, however, that the letters of the son strengthened the father in his position, and may, in some particulars, have actually directed his policy. With reference to the future, it is interesting to observe the retention of a friendly tone toward Jefferson.

The University of Wisconsin.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

REID, J. S. The Municipalities of the Roman Empire. Cambridge: University Press. Pp. 548. \$3.00.

In preparing this book, the author has undoubtedly worked over the extant material with the greatest care. As a scientific discussion of the subject, it suffers greatly from the lack of references to the sources in foot-notes. These might have been inserted without in any way detracting from the attractiveness of the text. The organization of the material is good. Reid's first chapter gives a general oversight of the larger features and historical importance of the municipalities. Chapters II-V explain in great detail the use of the system from the earliest time to the period of Sulla, until Italy was unified in its municipal organization. Chapters VI and VII deal with the policy of the "empire builders" and the early emperors. Chapters VIII-XII discuss in detail the spread of the municipal system under the Empire. The treatment here is by groups of provinces, large local sections in the east and west. This method of study is, I think, the only one possible because of the "opportunism" of the Roman policy during this time and its many local variations. Chapters XIII-XV give a general oversight of the internal administration, social aspects, and decay of the municipal system.

Despite the learning and industry displayed throughout the book, the reviewer has left it with a feeling of disappointment. Reid knows the new material upon the *coloni* and *latifundia*. His method of treatment, however, puts far too much emphasis upon the effects of municipal freedom. He leaves the impression that the decline of municipal life, the beginning of which he places in the time of Alexander Severus (p. 436), was an effective factor in the decline of the Roman power (p. 15). The intensity and scope of his study has here transformed a symptom of decline into a cause. The economic and administrative value of the organization of the *latifundia* has by no means escaped him. Yet the impress of it is slight upon his treatment.

There are flashes of keen insight in the volume, as when (p. 24) he shows how the spread of municipal autonomy in Italy was used as a means of securing loyalty among the conquered. But the general impression is not satisfactory. Someone else must give us the broad view which we need; must show us the gradual decline of the city-state ideal before Greek imperialism; how the Ptolemies and Seleucids used municipal foundations effectively in cementing their power, but controlled them and weakened their power as they used the municipal system; how from the outset, after her appearance as an expansionist and imperialistic power in the Mediterranean world, the centralizing and levelling activity of the Roman empire weakened the municipal ideal. We still need a statement of the case in which the provincial organization, the *latifundia*, and the municipalities will appear in proper balance. Reid's book contains all the material, written in a dignified but somewhat heavy style. American teachers will still obtain a fairer idea of the shifting balance of these elements from Arnold's "Provincial Administration," although it is also inadequate at the present time.

The University of Wisconsin.

W. L. WESTERMANN.

MAWER, ALLEN. The Vikings. Cambridge: The University Press, 1913. Pp. 150. 40 cents.

The addition of this number to the series of Cambridge Manuals of Science and Literature doubtless attests the recent popularity of the study of Scandinavian archeology and history. For the term "Viking" is defined by the author in the broader sense to include "the whole of the civilization, activity and influence of the Scandinavian peoples" from the middle of the eighth to the first half of the eleventh century. There are, naturally enough, decided limitations upon the amount of ground that can be covered in so brief a compass. This fact makes the work one of importance only for the general reader. Over one-half of the volume is given over to a rather dull recital of the operations of the Vikings in northern and northwestern Europe. One wonders at times whether the details might not have been handled in a way that would make the more significant developments stand out above the others. Yet the treatment given them by the author probably shows better than anything else could the restless activity of the Vikings in the wide field of their operations; it reveals the "tendencies of too strongly individualistic character leading to political . . . anarchy." One has, therefore, little difficulty in understanding why there was so little political unity worked out in the regions of Viking expansion.

The treatment of Viking civilization is general and elementary, but as adequate as the size of the volume would permit. A discussion of Scandinavian influence in the regions of Viking activity occupies the last four chapters and one-third of the text. It is decidedly sane and conservative and yet extremely suggestive. The brief bibli-

ography of secondary works is incomplete, but not without a definite value for the general reader. On the whole the volume should prove very serviceable for high school reference reading.

University of Illinois.

ARTHUR C. COLE.

JOHNSON, ALLEN, Editor. "Readings in American Constitutional History, 1776-1876." Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1913. Pp. 577. \$2.50.

The book has been prepared for the use of undergraduate college classes in American constitutional history, having in view the employment of the "case system," in whole or in part. In making choice of selections, Professor Johnson has interpreted constitutional history in more than the mere legal meaning of the term. He explains this wise choice in the preface: "the phrase 'constitutional history' has been used rather broadly to mean not only the development of Federal and State Constitutions, but also the history of governmental processes. 'Readings in the history of American polity' would have been a not inappropriate title for the book." The date in the title is slightly misleading, for the first forty-four pages are extracts in regard to events before 1776; no doubt, for the purpose of presenting documents, etc., having historical connection to those after 1776. It is to be regretted that the book does not contain selections on the period from 1876 to the present time, so as to include selections on the great industrial development and legislation since reconstruction days. Would it not have been well to have left out the material of the first forty-four pages—in view of the "charter" character of our history before 1776 and Professor MacDonald's books thereon—and have substituted selections on the period since 1876?

The selections are extracts, in the main, and not, of course, the complete documents, and are from charters, colonial and state statutes, state papers, contemporary histories, congressional and legislative journals, private papers and journals, and one magazine selection.

The reviewer heartily commends the book for college classes, and for supplementary use in high school classes (fourth year). With such collections as this one, and MacDonald's books, Boyd's "Cases," Beard's "Readings," Reinsch's "Readings," and Goodnow's "Selected Cases on Government and Administration," the college undergraduate should not lack for easily available material in American constitutional history. And the high school teacher finds sufficient variety in this list from which to choose. Professor Johnson's book, as in the case of the others, could be used, to a limited extent, in the high school, when taught in the last year. There is one feature but slowly appearing in source books as they are published from time to time, which would materially improve the usefulness of this book, both in college and high school,—that is, the statement with each selection of one or more questions or topics bearing upon that selection. Then the student would have his mind fixed on some problem or set object.

H. R. TUCKER.

William McKinley High School, St. Louis, Mo.

CATO-VARRO. Roman Farm Management, done into English with notes of modern instances by a Virginia Farmer. New York: Macmillan Co., 1913. Pp. xii+365. \$2.50.

To the cultured author who makes in his foot-notes untranslated quotations from the Italian, French, German, Latin and Greek, probably the idea did not occur that high school pupils would find his book serviceable to them. Yet for this group of readers it does have much value for at least two reasons: one, that these treatises,—Marcus Porcius Cato's "De Re Rustica" and Marcus Terentius

Varro's "Rerum Rusticarum,"—contain much material sure to arouse and hold the interest of many young students of ancient history; and because good translations of them in English are not otherwise available for them. Of Cato's treatise only a portion is used, that of merely curious interest having been omitted; Varro's treatise is produced practically entire. Besides the picture this material affords of Roman rural life with glimpses of slavery, class distinctions and other conditions of which the pupils' text-books will have told them, there is here joy for those boys who know first hand something of modern methods of farming in discovering that these Romans of long ago practiced what we now exalt as advanced and original methods. Thus Cato tells us that "if land is too thin it is the practice to plough in for manure lupines not yet podded, and likewise the field bean if it has not yet ripened"; and again, "Seed should be examined to ascertain that it is not sterile by age, that it is clean, particularly that it is not adulterated with other varieties of similar appearances." From passages like these the country high school boy may learn with zest not only that "green manuring" and "seed selection" were practiced two thousand years ago, but also that these ancient farmers were well acquainted with fruit-tree grafting, soil drainage, fattening of poultry for market by a forcing process, growing of alfalfa of which they sometimes got six cuttings per year, testing of eggs for fertility by holding them to the light, and other present-day agricultural practices. So the likeness of that remote past to the present and the present's indebtedness to it will be brought home to him with a quickening of his interest in the general subject of ancient history.

The author's notes citing modern instances illustrative of the text and often flavored with humor add distinct value to his excellent translation.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

WESTERMANN, WILLIAM L. The Story of the Ancient Nations. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 554. \$1.50.

Professor Westermann of the University of Wisconsin has written for the Twentieth Century text-book series an ancient history text which completes that series in history, according to the suggestions of the Committee of Seven. Prof. Westermann's book also follows the special recommendations of the Committee of Five. As stated in the preface, "the attempt has been made to present the progress of ancient civilization as a continuous and unified process. The writer has found it necessary to give, in simple terms, as much of the social background as the limited space afforded by the crowded high school curriculum might permit." With this purpose of the author in mind it may be well to consider the characteristics of the book as a text, its comparison with other texts in the same field, and its adaptability for use especially with first year high school students.

In the general apportionment of space to different periods, Prof. Westermann follows conventional lines. One fourth of the book is devoted to ancient history before the Persian Wars. Another is given to the later history of Greece. The third quarter of the book is devoted to Rome before the Empire, while the last quarter covers the period from Augustus to Charlemagne. In common with most other texts, the period from Theodosius to Charlemagne is discussed briefly, and there is almost nothing on civilization before Menes. If the general proportions are highly conventional, the special allotment of space and the treatment in general are distinctly the opposite. It is a pleasure to find the military and political history of the period after Aegospotami treated briefly, and thirty pages devoted to the historically important Hellenistic period in which Greek civilization was spread throughout the Eastern Mediter-

anean. It is a pleasure again to note the space devoted to early international affairs in the Western Mediterranean; to changes in Rome, especially after the second Punic War; to the development of Christianity, and to social conditions and progress under the Roman Empire.

The chief characteristic of the book, however, is not its emphasis on important but frequently neglected phases of ancient history; it is the general treatment of the whole subject. The author not only shows the development of ancient civilization as a continuous and unified process with a social background, but he builds his entire structure on an economic and social basis. That is, the treatment, in almost every chapter, shows how social and economic causes were interwoven in the political and military history. This is a difficult thing to do in so short an account. It gives the book vitality, but, at the same time, it makes it more difficult for the high school freshman to secure from the text-book material that he will retain. Immature minds can understand a simple narrative, but more difficult material must usually be presented rather didactically in order to be comprehended. The weaving of social and economic causes into an account may make a narrative interesting and vital; but it is usually necessary to label social and economic causes for first year high school students. In the hands of a good teacher this can be done, although the teacher's problem is already a heavy one in dealing with the raw material from the grammar grades.

Like most of the other ancient history text-books, Prof. Westermann's "History of the Ancient Nations" is therefore rather difficult for first year high school students. To those accustomed to other texts the dismissal of Thermopylae and Plataea almost in a word is unfortunate. Unlike most ancient histories this book is brief enough so that the student can easily read outside illustrative material on events or on social life; a feature that the reviewer considers desirable.

Professor Westermann's book is well arranged for younger students. The type is good, the headings are clear and the references and topics are helpful. He has been fortunate in having had high school experience. The book would be more valuable to students if more of the important maps were in color. At least a map of the Assyrian Empire should be added. The separation of Cretan and Mycenaean history from that of Greece is rather confusing. One appreciates the special treatment of Herodotus and other writers and thinkers, but wonders why Herodotus is preceded by Nebuchadnezzar. These are but minor defects in a text-book which is scholarly, alive and modern.

R. L. ASHLEY.

Pasadena High School.

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East High School

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LIST OF BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM OCTOBER 25 TO NOVEMBER 29, 1913.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

- Boggs, William R. Military reminiscences (Monograph Trin. Coll. Hist. Soc.) Durham, N. C.: Seeman Printery. 115 pp. \$1.10.
- Bourne, Henry E., and Benton, Elbert J. History of the United States. Boston: Heath. 534 pp. \$1.00.
- Bradley, Glenn D. The story of the pony express. Chicago: McClurg. 175 pp. 75c. net.
- Brooks, Robert Preston. History of Georgia. Boston: Atkinson, Mentzer & Co. 444 pp. 60c.
- Buck, Solon J. The Granger Movement. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. 384 pp. (39 pp. bibl.). \$2.00.
- Choris, Louis. San Francisco one hundred years ago. Trans. from the French. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. 20 pp. \$1.25.
- Ferris, William H. The African abroad; or his evolution in western civilization. 2 vols. New Haven, Ct.: Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor. \$5.00.
- Fish, Carl R. The development of American nationality. New York: Am. Book Co. 535 pp. \$2.25.
- Gilman, Theodore. The Huguenots as founders and patriots. New York: Evening Post Job Pr. Office. 16 pp.
- Griffith, Henry S. History of the town of Carver, Mass., 1637-1810. New Bedford, Mass.: E. Anthony & Sons. 366 pp. \$2.25.
- James, George Wharton. The old Franciscan Missions of California. Boston: Little, Brown. 287 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Jenkins, Stephen. The old Boston post-road. New York: Putnam. 453 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Journal of Pontiac's Conspiracy, 1763. Pub. . . . under auspices of Michigan Society of the Colonial Wars. Detroit: Speaker-Hines Pr. Co. 243 pp.
- Kephart, Horace. Our southern highlanders [description of people of southern Appalachian region]. New York: Outing Pub. 395 pp. \$2.50 net.
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